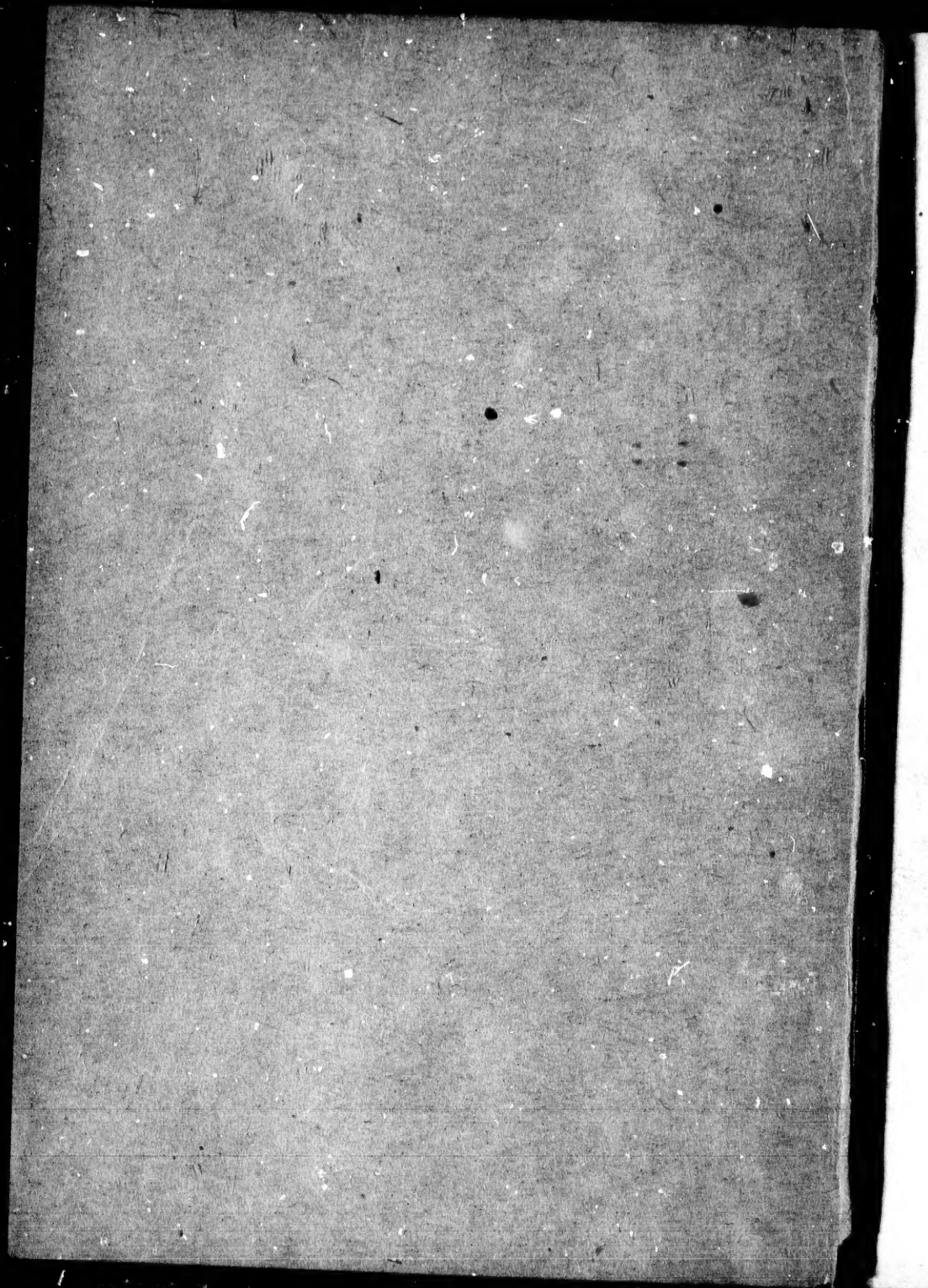




THE
PUBLIC SCHOOL GRAMMAR,
AND ELEMENTS OF
COMPOSITION ;

With Numerous Exercises.



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PREFACE.

IN offering this book to his fellow-teachers, the author lays claim to no other merit than that of having earnestly endeavored to present the elementary principles of English Grammar in such a way that they can be readily comprehended by the youth of our Public Schools, and made helpful to them in the correct use of their mother tongue. The lessons have been so framed as to lead the learner, step by step, to discover the essential truths of Grammar by observing the facts of actual speech; and then these truths have been made tributary to the art of correct expression by exercises in Composition. Advantage has thus been taken of the pleasure that a discovery and its immediate application always afford to allure young pupils to the study; while, by proceeding on the principle of "one thing at a time," and dividing the book into consecutive parts, pains have been taken to avoid disgusting and discouraging them.

Part I. aims at rendering the learner thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the Sentence, and with the function of each Part of Speech,—this knowledge being deduced from the very necessities of speech itself. It is believed that this Part may be taken up by pupils in the Junior Division of the Third Book; and for this reason the language here has purposely been made simple and semi-colloquial. If a pupil has to leave school after having mastered this Part only, he will carry with him much exact and useful knowledge concerning the Sentence and the words that compose it. Part II. gives the Classification or sub-division of the Parts of Speech in the order in which they were learnt, thus calling them again to mind, and further impressing their function upon the memory. It is thought that this Part may be mastered while pupils are in the Senior Division of the Third Book; and that Parts III. and IV., which deal with Inflection and Syntax, may be mastered while pupils are passing through the Fourth Book. Some useful information on the Alphabet, Use of Capitals, Punctuation, and Letter-Writing, which did not fall logically under any of the preceding Parts, has been given in Part V. as an Appendix.

The "Errors for Correction," liberally interspersed throughout the book, have been inserted, first and mainly, to improve the speech of pupils by showing them that much of the English they are in the habit of using and

of hearing is incorrect; secondly, because it has been found that frequent practice in correcting errors of this kind creates and develops, even in very young people, a critical faculty that makes them quick to detect bad English in the language of others, and to avoid the use of it in their own; and, thirdly, in Part IV., to test, as well, their grasp of the principles of Syntax.

The other Exercises with which the book abounds have intentionally been made numerous: 1st, because it is not only right but also profitable to gratify the desire young people always have to apply knowledge as soon as they have gained it; 2nd, because a truth or a principle is not the useful, permanent property of the learner till he can reproduce it, and correctly put it in practice. These Exercises are intended to be suggestive rather than exhaustive. Looking to the intelligence of the class, the teacher will decide whether, before passing on to what follows, the class should do part of an Exercise, the whole of it, or additional Exercises of his own making.

No apology is offered for the attention given throughout the book to the subject of Punctuation. This important part of Composition is sadly neglected, and no improvement can be looked for till teachers and pupils are convinced that a written sentence is not finished till it is punctuated, and that faulty punctuation is as great a disgrace as faulty spelling.

By the appeal that is continually made to the experience and to the linguistic needs of the pupils themselves, it is hoped that an interest and an impressiveness have been given to the Lessons which could not be secured so well in any other way. It is hoped, too, that by this means, and by following, as much as possible, the inductive method, the subject of Grammar has been rescued from the category of studies to be learned by rote and recited *memoriter*, and made the means of valuable mental training.

Free use has been made by the author of the labors of his predecessors, particularly of the "Essentials of English Grammar," by Prof. Whitney, of Yale. In some places he has but adapted this most excellent work to the circumstances and needs of Canadian Public Schools.

In order that a Public School pupil proceeding to a High School may be saved some confusion, this book, both in matter and in language, has been assimilated, as much as its nature permitted, to the "High School Grammar"; the privilege of doing this having been generously afforded by the author of that work.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

LESSON I.

INTRODUCTORY.—THE SENTENCE.

1. When we wish to tell others what is passing in our minds, we make use of either spoken or written words, which we call language, or speech.

This language, or speech, we learn chiefly from hearing others speak. Many people, however, speak **BAD ENGLISH**; that is, they use the wrong kinds of words and put them together in wrong ways, and, of course, we often imitate these faults.

If, then, we are to speak and to write **GOOD ENGLISH**, we must be taught the right kinds of words to use and the right ways of putting them together.

To teach this is the chief object of the lessons in this book.

2. If you were asked what the school-clock does, you might say

The clock ticks; or, The clock tells the time.

If, again, you were asked where the clock is, you might say

The clock hangs on the wall; or,

The clock is on the teacher's desk.

So, too, if you were to think about a bird and say what you think, perhaps it would be

A bird flies; A bird chirps; A bird sings;
A bird builds its nest.

In these eight groups of words you would be *stating* or *expressing* your thoughts about the school-clock and a bird. And each of these groups we call a *statement*, or SENTENCE.

If, then, you wish to tell exactly what you mean by the word sentence, that is, to give a DEFINITION of it, you will say

DEFINITION.—A sentence is a group of words expressing a thought.

The class will commit all definitions to memory, and repeat them often. The teacher also must frequently assure himself that the meaning has not been forgotten.

Exercise 1.—Make as many sentences as you can about a tree, a fish, a house, the sun, the railway, cars, horses.

Exercise 2.—So far, you have been *speaking* what you think; now take your slates and *write* something about a flower, a garden, mice, boots, the moon, the stars; some boy, some girl, some place, some animal, some vegetable, some mineral.

CAUTION.—Take care to begin each sentence with a capital letter, and to put a period at the end of it. Keep the lines straight, write neatly, and spell every word correctly.

Model—

A flower blooms.

Exercise 3.—Point out and correct what is wrong in the following sentences:—

1. my dog can jump 2. harry is making a kite 3. our cat has sharp claws 4. your brother hurt me 5. the spring is a pleasant season 6. we skate in winter 7. bees make honey 8. ploughing is healthy work 9. a horse is a useful animal 10. it was hot last summer 11. snow covered the ground 12. that house belongs to my uncle 13. bricks are made of clay

LESSON II.

GROUPS OF WORDS ARE NOT ALWAYS SENTENCES.

1. If we speak or write the words

boy a dog the savage yesterday little bit,

we have not made a sentence; because these words, if arranged in this way, do not express a thought. If we wish to express a thought by them, we must put them together properly: thus,

A savage dog bit the little boy yesterday.

We thus see that we cannot form a sentence by uttering a number of words at random.

2. Neither do we make a sentence if we say

The pretty red squirrel; or,

A boy skating on the pond;

though these words are properly arranged. To make a sentence we must say something more; as,

The pretty red squirrel is in the tree.

A boy skating on the pond broke through the ice.

From this we see that some groups of words, though arranged correctly, do not express a *complete* thought, and are, therefore, not sentences.

Exercise 4.—Tell which of the following groups of words are sentences, and which are not:

Ask yourself about each, "Do the words make a statement?" and then, to make sure, say what they state.

Model 1.—*Dogs bark.* These words make a statement about *dogs*; therefore they are a sentence. They state that dogs *bark*.

Model 2.—*The stars are shining.* These words make a statement about the *stars*; therefore they are a sentence. They state that the stars *are shining*.

Model 3.—*Some noisy boys.* These words do not state anything about the *boys*; therefore they are not a sentence,

1. Flying birds. 2. Birds fly. 3. Closed door. 4. A running boy.
 5. The rain falls. 6. Cooked meat. 7. The meat is cooked. 8. The snow
 sparkles. 9. Timid rabbit. 10. Like skating. 11. Boys like skating.
 12. Cows milk. 13. Cows give milk. 14. Rabbits are timid. 15. Bees
 honey. 16. Bees make honey. 17. A bird in the nest. 18. Snow on the
 ground. 19. A sail up the river. 20. Heat from coal.

Exercise 5.—Make sentences about the things in Column I. below,
 selecting what you say about them from Column II.

Select first the thing about which you speak and then what you say about it. See that
 the sentences make good and complete sense. Observe the caution given in Lesson I.

COLUMN I.	COLUMN II.	COLUMN I.	COLUMN II.
1. The dog	cackles.	11. Toronto	catches mice.
2. An elephant	howls.	12. George	has pictures.
3. Snakes	fly.	13. My book	are writing.
4. Geese	wear helmets.	14. Our cat	is sewing.
5. The hen	is strong.	15. Our lessons	is sharp.
6. The wolf	lay eggs.	16. We	is a city.
7. Pigeons	creep.	17. Jane	likes fruit.
8. The policemen	sleep.	18. My knife	are finished.
9. The hands	hold things.	19. The ball	is built of brick.
10. The children	growls.	20. Our school	went a long way.

LESSON III.

PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

1. You now understand that we do not really make a sentence
 unless we say something about something. It follows from this
 that every sentence must have two parts: one to express

the thing spoken about;

the other to express

that which is said about it.

2. The part that expresses the thing spoken about is called
 the **SUBJECT** of the sentence, and the part that expresses what is
 said about the subject is called the **PREDICATE** of the sentence.
 Thus, in the sentence—

The dog howls,

the dog is the subject, and **howls** the predicate.

DEFINITION.—*The subject of a sentence is the part that expresses the thing spoken about.*

DEFINITION.—*The predicate of a sentence is the part that expresses what is said about the subject.*

3. Analysis.—When we break up a sentence into subject and predicate—or these parts into still smaller parts—we are said to be **analyzing** the sentence, or its parts; and this breaking up is called **analysis**. It can be done either in writing or by word of mouth. If done in writing, it is called **written analysis**; if by word of mouth, it is called **oral analysis**. In this lesson our analysis will consist in merely separating subject from predicate.

Exercise 6.—Analyze, orally, the following sentences:—

Model for oral analysis.—*Bears like honey.* In this sentence *bears* is the part that expresses the thing spoken about; therefore it is the subject: *like honey* is the part that expresses what is said about the subject *bears*; therefore it is the predicate.

1. Apples grow on trees. 2. The miller grinds wheat. 3. A horse can run fast. 4. Lions roar. 5. My brothers can swim. 6. Harry is making a kite. 7. A little girl sat on the door-step. 8. The strong boy was helping an old man. 9. The feeble old man fell down. 10. A robin on the tree was singing. 11. A sail on the lake is very pleasant. 12. Heat comes from burning coal.

Exercise 7.—Write (to the teacher's dictation) the sentences in Exercise 6, and then analyze them in writing.

Model for written analysis.—*The miller | grinds wheat.*

Observe the caution given in Lesson I.

Exercise 8.—Make sentences of your own by adding predicates to the following subjects:—

1. The baker. 2. The farmer. 3. A carpenter. 4. A ship. 5. Crows. 6. An eagle. 7. The red squirrel. 8. A mad dog. 9. A house on fire. 10. That boat on the water. 11. The snow in the valley. 12. The lovely spring time. 13. Tom's kite.

Exercise 9.—Make sentences by putting suitable subjects to the following predicates:—

1. — swim. 2. — fly. 3. — is thawing fast. 4. — scream. 5. — went away. 6. — works hard. 7. — lost his place. 8. — shines brightly. 9. — degrades. 10. — ennobles the mind.

LESSON IV.

BARE SUBJECT AND COMPLETE SUBJECT.

1. We found in Lesson III. that, in order to form a sentence, we must have something spoken about, and, also, something said about it. It follows from this that, in every sentence, there must be at least two words—one to express the thing we speak about, that is, to be the subject; and another to express what we wish to say about the subject, that is, to be the predicate.

Let us first see what we can find out about the subject.

2. The subject may (and generally does) consist of several words; as, for example, in the sentence—

My little yellow bird sings.

But, although the subject may consist of several words, there will always be one word which more particularly names the thing spoken about. In the above sentence **bird** is that word; for, although the words, **my**, **little**, **yellow**, are parts of the subject, we do not say that **my** sings, that **little** sings, or that **yellow** sings, but that **bird** sings.

3. The one word that, in this way, more particularly expresses the thing spoken about, is called the **BARE SUBJECT**; and the bare subject, with all the words that belong to it, is called the **COMPLETE SUBJECT**.

Of course, when the subject consists of one word only, the *bare* subject and the *complete* subject are the same. As a matter of fact, however, we generally need to use, with the bare subject, words which complete it by describing it in some way. Thus, in the foregoing sentence, the bare subject **bird** is completed by the words **my**, **little**, and **yellow**, which describe it.

DEFINITION.—*The bare subject of a sentence is the one word that particularly expresses the thing spoken about.*

DEFINITION.—*The complete subject of a sentence is the bare subject and all the words that belong to it.*

4. Analysis.—We can now carry the analysis of a sentence a little further than before, for we can separate the bare subject from the other words of the complete subject. We do this in writing, if we separate subject from predicate by an upright line as before, and then draw one stroke under the bare subject.

Written Analysis.—*The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.*

Model.—*The lowing herd | winds slowly o'er the lea.*

Oral Analysis.—*The old wooden bridge fell down.*

Model.—In this sentence the word *bridge* is the one word that expresses the thing spoken about; therefore it is the bare subject. It is completed by the words *the, old, and wooden*. *Fell down* are the words that make the statement or **assertion**, as it is called, about the subject *bridge*; therefore they are the predicate.

Exercise 10.—Write (to the teacher's dictation) the following sentences, and analyze them first orally and then in writing, according to the above models:—

1. The little busy bee works hard. 2. The snow covers the ground.
3. Their naughty cat killed my bird. 4. The swallows come in spring.
5. Our brown dog knows some tricks. 6. Flowers bloom in spring.
7. Joy danced in her dark eye. 8. Time waits for no man. 9. Each foeman drew his battle blade. 10. The distant thunder told of a storm.
11. The smiling daisies blow beneath the sun. 12. No useless coffin enclosed his breast.

LESSON V.

NAME-WORDS OR NOUNS.

1. From what was said in the last lesson we see that in every sentence there must be at least two kinds of words—a name-word to name the subject, and a statement-word to say something about the subject; and, as all language is made up of sentences, it follows that our language must have at least these two classes, or kinds of words.

2. In this lesson we shall treat of name-words only. Name-words are called **NOUNS**, noun being another word for *name*. Some

nouns are the names of persons or places or things, that we can perceive by the sense of sight ; as,

James, Toronto, school.

Others are names of things that we perceive by some of the other senses ; as,

sound, odor, taste.

Others are names of things that we can only think about ; as,

mind, soul, life.

Others, still, are names of qualities of objects ; as,

roundness, brightness, beauty, courage.

But, though there are many different kinds of nouns, they are all alike names ; and since we can think of, and say something about, that which they name, they can each be used as the bare subject of a sentence.

A name may consist of one word, as, **Toronto, Shakespeare**; or of two, as, **General Middleton, Owen Sound, Christmas Day**; or of three, as, **Bay of Quinte, Duke of Wellington, New Year's Day**; or even of four or more, as, **Maid of the Mist**.

DEFINITION.—*A noun is the name of anything.*

CAUTION.—Bear in mind that the thing itself is not a noun ; it is only its name that is a noun. Thus if you eat an apple, you do not eat a noun, but the name apple given to the thing you are eating is a noun.

Exercise 11.—Write out the following extract neatly and correctly ; then underline all the nouns it contains:—

One fine morning a lion, a fox, and a donkey set out to hunt together in the forest. The donkey ran about in the brushwood, made a terrible noise with his loud bray, and frightened the deer, the hares, and the rabbits. The fox lew at their hind legs, bit at them, and drove them to where the lion was standing.

3. You must not suppose, because the bare subject of a sentence is a noun, that every noun in a sentence is a bare subject. For example, in the sentence—

A dog in the yard bit my brother on the leg
there are four nouns—**dog, yard, brother, leg.**

If, however, you analyze the sentence, you will find that only one of these—**dog**—is the bare subject. We must, therefore, bear

in mind that although a name-word in any part of the sentence is a noun, it is not always a subject.

4. Parsing.—When we select the name-words in a sentence and call them nouns, we are said to be **parsing** the nouns.

Oral Parsing.—*General Brock was killed at the battle of Queenston Heights.*

Model.—*General Brock* is the name of a person; therefore it is a noun.

battle is the name of an event; therefore it is a noun.

Queenston Heights is the name of a place; therefore it is a noun.

Exercise 12.—Parse the nouns in the following sentences according to the above model:—

1. Toronto is a city in Ontario.
2. Beavers are found in Canada.
3. Ice is frozen water, snow is frozen vapor, and hail is frozen rain.
4. Montreal is built on an island in the St. Lawrence.
5. Magna Charta was signed by John.
6. In the month of June, flowers bloom in the garden.

LESSON VI.

COMPOSITION AND GRAMMAR.

1. When we express our thoughts in suitable words and put them in their proper order, more especially if we do so in writing, we are said to be **COMPOSING**; and that which we compose—a letter, for example—is called a **COMPOSITION**. The act of composing is also called **COMPOSITION**.

2. The ability to compose well is closely connected with the study that teaches us the right forms of words to use and the right ways of putting them together into spoken or written sentences. This study is called **GRAMMAR**. Without a knowledge of grammar we should not know whether the English we were using was good or bad, nor why it was good or bad.

Grammar does not at all *make* rules and laws for language; but the information that it gives, whereby we know whether we are using good

English or bad, has been obtained by persons observing how those speak and write who use the language most correctly, and then setting down what they have observed, in an orderly way, in a book which is called a "*Grammar*."

3. We shall, from time to time in these lessons, learn many of the chief facts that grammar teaches us about language, (we have already learned a few), and as fast as we learn them we shall put them in practice in our exercises in composition. Before entering upon composition, however, you must know that in written language, which is addressed to the eye, we have to observe certain rules about capital letters, punctuation marks, and so forth, for which there is no need in spoken language, which is addressed to the ear. The following are some of these rules:—

1. A word that is the name of a particular PERSON or PLACE must begin with a capital: thus,

Columbus, Tennyson, Toronto, Ontario.

2. If the name of a person or of a place consist of two or more words, each word, or each important word, in the name, must begin with a capital: thus,

Tom Brown, Egerton Ryerson, Niagara Falls, Gulf of St. Lawrence.

3. Sometimes part of a word is used for the whole word, as, *Ont.* for *Ontario*; *ex.* for *example*. The word is then said to be *abbreviated*, that is, shortened, and the part thus used is called an ABBREVIATION.

When a name is abbreviated by using the first letter of it (called the initial), such letter must be a capital; and, like all other abbreviations, it must be followed by a period, to show that it is an abbreviation: thus,

A. P. Smith, Esq.; Col. A. T. H. Williams.

4. *Mr.* (which is short for *Mister*), *Mrs.* (which is short for *Mistress*), and *Miss*, must begin with a capital: thus,

Mr. Jones, Mrs. Smith, and Miss Robinson came home yesterday.

Exercise 13.—Compose ten sentences, using as bare subjects the names of *Persons* you know, or have read about.

Exercise 14.—Compose ten sentences, using as bare subjects the names of *Places* you know, or have read about.

The name of a thing may be the name of

{	an ANIMAL, as bear.
	a VEGETABLE, as wheat.
	a MINERAL, as silver.
	an ACTION, as leaping.
	a QUALITY, as whiteness.

Exercise 15.—Compose ten sentences, using as bare subject the name of some animal, some vegetable, some mineral, some action, some quality, two of each.

Model 1.—*The horse is a noble animal.*

“ 2.—*Wheat is ground into flour.*

“ 3.—*Sand is used in making mortar.*

“ 4.—*Bathing is healthy.*

“ 5.—*His courage was admired.*

Explanation of some marks and signs used in writing.

1. The mark ? is called an **Interrogation Mark**, and is used to show that the sentence before it is a question: thus,

Has the teacher come ?

2. The letters **viz.** stand for **namely**; they are used in writing when we wish to specify persons or things before referred to: thus,

In every sentence there must be two kinds of words, **viz.**, a name-word and a statement-word.

3. The letters **i.e.** mean **that is**; they introduce words which show more fully what is meant by some word or words just used: thus,

The bare subject, **i.e.**, the noun, is the principal word of the whole subject.

4. The curved lines () are called **Parentheses**; they are used to cut off words in a sentence, which, being chiefly explanatory, are not necessary to the sense: thus,

Nouns (or name-words) must have a verb.

5. The word **ditto** was formerly, and is now sometimes, used to indicate repetition, particularly in lists: thus,

2 wooden ploughs,

3 iron ditto.

In the hurry of writing, **ditto** was contracted into **do**, and is now often represented by this sign “: thus,

2 wooden ploughs.

3 iron “

6. The sign **&** is sometimes used for the word **and**; when it has a **c** after it, thus, **&c.**, it means **and the rest**. In books the sign **&c.** is often written **etc.**, which is an abbreviation for, and is pronounced, *et cetera*.

Exercise 16.—**Errors for Correction.**—Point out and correct all the faults you can find in the following sentences:—

CAUTION.—1. Never write the words to-day and to-morrow without putting a short stroke (called a hyphen) after the word to. 2. Always put hyphens between the parts of the words in writing father-in-law, mother-in-law, and so on.

1. James brady lives in our town 2. mr Craig has just come back from montreal 3. The Bay of quinte is part of Lake ontario 4. J T Day was hurt yesterday 5 miss Kemp will be home tomorrow 6. Is mrs harris your motherinlaw 7. Jack, gi'me a drink, I'm so dry 8. billie Porter hurt himself 9. Has Mr Mrs and Miss Hawkins gone to new York 10. Mr A M Wade is his fatherinlaw 11. Little tommy Wilkins got a tumble on Wednesday 12. Niagara falls is a wonderful place 13. Bob and thomas are going there today 14. The st Lawrence river flows past the thousand islands.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—It is suggested that these "Errors" should first be corrected orally, sentence by sentence, the teacher calling upon members of the class to point out each fault, to say, when they are able, why it is a fault, and to make the correction; *that the teacher then dictate the sentences of the exercise for the class to write them with the proper corrections; that slates be then exchanged for correction; and that during the correction the teacher seek to impress the rules, cautions, etc., by having the class repeat them in answer to his questions—"Why is such a form right?" or, "Why would such a form be wrong?"*

Occasionally, in these exercises, sentences will be found containing errors as to which no rule or caution has been given. In explanation it may be stated: 1. That the prevalence of such errors makes it undesirable to postpone their correction till after the point has been covered in due course by the grammar lesson; 2. That in most instances of the kind, the verbal explanation, caution, or "never say" of the teacher will meet the case much better than any formal rule that could be given. The words to which these remarks apply will be found for the most part printed in italics.

LESSON VII.

BARE PREDICATE.—THE VERB.

1. We found in Lesson IV. that, although the complete subject may consist of several words, there is always in it a word that more particularly expresses the thing spoken about, and that this word is called the bare subject. Now, just in the same way, the predicate may consist of several words; yet there will always be in it a word that more particularly makes the statement, or assertion (as it is sometimes called), about the subject. Thus, in the sentence—

My little yellow bird sings beautifully every day,
although the words **beautifully, every, and day** are parts of the

predicate, because they are part of what we say about the subject bird, yet it is plain that if used alone with the subject they would state nothing, and that we do not make a statement unless we join with them such a word as **SINGS**. **Sings**, then, is the word that chiefly makes the statement—does the asserting about the subject **bird**.

So, too, in the long predicate of the sentence—

**The horses run every day down the hill to the
brook for water,**

run is the word that chiefly makes the assertion about the subject horses.

2. That word in the whole predicate which, in this way, makes the assertion about the subject, is called the **BARE PREDICATE**; and the bare predicate, with all the words that belong to it, is called the **COMPLETE PREDICATE**.

DEFINITION.—*The bare predicate of a sentence is that word in the whole predicate that makes the assertion about the subject.*

DEFINITION.—*The complete predicate is the bare predicate and all the words that belong to it.*

Exercise 17.—In the following sentences distinguish the bare from the complete predicate:—

1. The school-clock ticks loudly. 2. The judge sentenced the prisoner to death. 3. The sun shines in the valley and on the hillside. 4. The flowers in the garden need water every day. 5. My brother likes farming very much. 6. The railway train goes slowly over the bridge. 7. The fire soon consumed the town. 8. The disease quickly spread to other places. 9. Along the dusty road they went. 10. The rising sun peeped over the hill.

11. Swiftly, swiftly, flew the ship,
Yet she sailed softly, too;
Sweetly, sweetly, blew the breeze,
On me alone it blew.

3. In Grammar, the bare predicate, that is, the word that makes the assertion, is called a **VERB**. The name *verb* means *word* simply; and this kind of word was so called because the verb was looked upon as the chief word of the sentence; for the reason that without a verb, as we have seen, there can be no statement or assertion, and therefore no sentence.

DEFINITION.—A **verb** is a word by means of which we can make an assertion.

Exercise 18.—Now go again over the sentences in Exercise 17, naming the verbs and telling why they are verbs.

Oral Analysis.—*The young girl saw a snake in the garden.*

Model.—In this sentence *girl* names that about which the assertion is made, therefore it is the bare subject (or noun); it is completed by the words *the* and *young*. *Saw* is the word which chiefly makes the assertion about the subject, therefore it is the bare predicate (or verb); it is completed by the words *a snake in the garden*.

Written Analysis.—*Beautiful pictures hung all around the room.*

Model.—*Beautiful pictures* | hung all around the room.

Exercise 19.—Copy neatly the following sentences and analyze them according to the above models for oral and written analysis:—

1. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way. 2. My father blessed me fervently. 3. Bees construct their cells most ingeniously. 4. The cloud burst over the city. 5. His fingers grasped the broken sword. 6. The doctor then directed his steps homeward. 7. The moving moon went up the sky. 8. At my feet the city slumbered. 9. Long grass covered the plain. 10. The farmer sat in his easy chair.

11. The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew,
The furrow followed free.

12. The sun now rose upon the right,
Out of the sea came he.

Parsing.—*William lost his dog in the woods.*

Model.—*William* is the name of a person; therefore it is a noun.

lost is the word that makes the assertion about the subject
William; therefore it is a verb.

dog is the name of an animal; therefore it is a noun.

woods is the name of a thing; therefore it is a noun.

Exercise 20.—Parse the nouns and the verbs in the last Exercise, according to the foregoing model.

4. In this last exercise you have been putting the words that are names into a class by themselves, and calling them “nouns;” and the words “by means of which we can make an assertion” into another class, and calling them “verbs.”

We shall see, as we proceed with our lessons, that *all* the words of a sentence can, in like manner, be put into one or another

of *eight classes*, according to the part they play in expressing our thoughts; for we shall find that each word in a sentence has its own particular work to do, and its own ways of being used with other words.

5. When words are put into separate classes according to their uses, as we now see that nouns and verbs may be put, the classes are called **PARTS OF SPEECH**; and every word, as belonging to one or another class, and as having a certain kind of use of its own, is called a **PART OF SPEECH**.

This name "part of speech," given to a word, plainly shows that it is only a "part," and not the whole, of speech, and that it must be joined to other "parts," that is, to words of other classes, in order to make a whole, or in order to be speech.

The whole which these parts make up is the sentence.

Exercise 21.—Errors for Correction.—Point out and correct all the faults you can find in the following sentences:—

CAUTIONS.—1. Never say "You is," "You was," "Is you," or "Was you?" But always say "You are," "You were," "Are you?" and "Were you?" 2. Never say "I seen it," or "I done it." But always say "I saw it," "I did it."

1. monday Morning will be the first of june. 2. i am off to Georgian bay tuesday. 3. He seen H v Sanders last week at the fair. 4. *Them's* my books; *here's your's*. 5. I am sure you *done* it, for you was at our place at the time. 6. We passed through st catharines to day. 7. *Whose* got my pencil. 8. Don't the Welland canal join lake erie and ontario. 9. Wasn't you at mrs nevvilles at six oclock lastnight. 10. I believe that's them, for they said they was *comin'*. 11. I expect it was *her* that done it. 12. Yesterday was a very nice day.

LESSON VIII.

PRONOUNS.

1. We now understand why, in every sentence, there must be at least a subject and a predicate. We have learned also that the subject of a sentence may be that part of speech called a noun, for the reason that a noun can be the name of that which we speak about; and that the predicate of a sentence must have in it, as its asserting word, that part of speech called a verb, for the reason that without a verb there can be no assertion.

Indeed, with these two parts of speech alone we can form sentences of a simple kind: thus,

NOUN.	VERB.	NOUN.	VERB.	NOUN.	VERB.
Boys	run.	George	reads.	Time	flies.

2. But while a *verb* is the only kind of word, or part of speech, that can make an assertion, that is, that can be used as a predicate, the *noun* is not the only one that can be used as a subject. For, in the little sentences just given, instead of the subject nouns **Boys, George, Time**, we can use the words **They, He, It**; and say

They	run.	He	reads.	It	flies.
------	------	----	--------	----	--------

But the words **they, he** and **it**, and others like them, are words of a kind so different in use from other words, that they are made a class or part of speech by themselves, and are called PRONOUNS.

3. The name pronoun given to this part of speech means *standing for a noun*; for the words which make up this class are a kind of additional set of names for objects, which may be used instead of their usual names, that is, instead of nouns, *whenever circumstances show plainly enough what is referred to*.

Thus, instead of saying

George reads; or, The sun shines,

we may say

He reads; or, It shines,

if we have before spoken of George and the sun in a way that makes plain what **he** and **it** mean.

4. So, speaking to George himself, or to George and others with him, we may say

You read,

because the meaning of **you** would be quite evident from the circumstances : and George, speaking of himself, may say

I read,

for in this case also the meaning of **I** would be plain from the circumstances. Again, if George were to take hold of, or point to some boy near him, and say

This is my cousin,

we should know well enough who was meant by the word **this**, though we may never know the boy's name.

5. In this way, we may use **he, she, it, this** or **that**, of every single object that we can speak of by a noun ; to any one or more that we can speak to, we may say **you** ; and any one of them that can speak of itself, may call itself **I**. In all cases, however, our knowledge of what these pronouns mean depends on our knowing from the circumstances who or what is referred to.

6. Thus the pronouns are a sort of *general names*, or general substitutes, when circumstances make their meaning plain, for ordinary names, and we are led to the following

DEFINITION.—A **pronoun** is a word that can stand for a noun.

7. It follows from what was said in 5, that a small number of pronouns can stand for a very large number of nouns. This is really the case, for while there are many thousands of nouns in the language as names of objects, about *twenty* pronouns suffice to stand for these names. Hence the words in this part of speech are not numerous. The chief of them are found in the following list:—

I, me; we, us; you; he, him; she, her; it; they, them; this, that;
who, what, which.

Exercise 22.—Point out all the pronouns in the following sentences,

telling whether they stand for the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of, and whether for one or more than one:—

1. I know it. 2. So here he comes. 3. We saw her in the street. 4. She climbed up the mountain. 5. You know they left last night. 6. I think they saw us when we passed the door. 7. If you touch a wasp, it will sting you. 8. We laughed loudly, but they were silent. 9. I told them that we saw her. 10. They are good boys. 11. This is the chair that I bought. 12. Tell me what you heard. 13. James will come when she comes. 14. Above it stood the seraphs. 15. He often helped me. 16. Who told you that? 17. She pitied the boy and gave him food. 18. I hear a voice you cannot hear.

Exercise 23.—Fill up each blank in the following with any suitable pronoun:—

1. Follow —. 2. My brother is sick, did — know —? 3. — saw the meteor. 4. Do as — do. 5. — may leave school if — are sick. 6. — is learning to sew. 7. Tom and George have lost their ball, so — cannot play. 8. — has made a mistake, — think. 9. When Sara had finished her drawing, — had — framed, and — did — great credit. 10. — must be ready when I call for —. 11. — is learning to plough. 12. — like our teacher, — is kind to —.

Oral and written analysis.—As in previous lesson.

Parsing.—*Ella likes flowers and she cultivates them.*

Model. — <i>Ella</i>	is the name of a person; therefore it is a noun.
<i>likes</i>	is the word that makes an assertion about the subject <i>Ella</i> ; therefore it is a verb.
<i>flowers</i>	is the name of a thing; therefore it is a noun.
<i>she</i>	is a word that stands for a noun (<i>Ella</i>); therefore it is a pronoun.
<i>cultivates</i>	is the word that makes an assertion about the subject <i>she</i> ; therefore it is a verb.
<i>them</i>	is a word that stands for a noun (<i>flowers</i>); therefore it is a pronoun.

Exercise 24.—Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, verbs, and pronouns they contain:—

1. We saw the fireworks in the park. 2. Joseph gained the prize. 3. He deserved it. 4. She touched me on the shoulder. 5. He planted the tree. 6. I watched him. 7. You often helped us. 8. They lighted a fire on the ground. 9. It burned brightly in the darkness.

Exercise 25.—**Errors for Correction.**—Point out and correct all the faults you can find in the following sentences, and tell, where you can, why they are faults:—

CAUTIONS.—1. In speaking of yourself and another person, politeness requires that you should mention the other person first, thus: Jane and I will come. He told John and me. 2. The words I and O must always be capital letters. 3. Ours and yours should not be spelled our's and your's. 4. Never say them books, them apples, but say those books, those apples.

1. He said that me and you may go if we liked 2. *Most* any boy can do that. 3. do you see them *there* trees yonder 4. Them two boys are very like to each other. 5. George and him was playing truant. 6. i cannot stand it *no* longer. 7. *Was* you at school to day 8. You was going down the street when I seen you, 9. My cousins will be at our *place* on *new yearsday*? 10. The horse of Mr H M Drummond Esq of oakwood victoria co was drowned in the lake. 11. i am, your's truly, Mr J B Stokes 12. o mary what a fright you are 13. Please sir *can* i go home 14. *Will* I be allowed another *try* 15. Me and her are in the same class 16. You and me can run faster than *them*.

LESSON IX.

MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT.—ADJECTIVES.

1. The three parts of speech we have now learned about, viz.: the **noun**, the **pronoun**, and the **verb**, are often called the principal ones, because by means of them we can form sentences without help from other parts of speech.

But we seldom do so; we can say

Roses grow in our garden;

but, if we wish to tell the kind, we must use with roses some word that will describe them, such as *red*, and say

Red roses grow in our garden.

We may wish to describe them further, and say

Large, red roses grow in our garden.

Or further still, and say

Large, red, fragrant roses grow in our garden.

2. Each of these descriptive words may be necessary to give a correct idea of the roses we are speaking about. It will be

noticed, however, that the meaning of the subject noun **roses** has been somewhat changed by each descriptive word we have added to it. It has, in fact, been *limited* by each added word. For when we said that roses grow, we may be understood to mean roses of any kind, or of all kinds; but when we say **red** roses, we limit the meaning to roses that are **red**; by saying **large, red** roses, we limit the meaning to roses that are **red** and **large**; and by saying **large, red, fragrant** roses, we limit the meaning to roses that are **large** and **red** and **fragrant**.

3. Because the subject noun roses is thus changed in meaning by these words, it is said to be **MODIFIED** by them; and each of them is called a **MODIFIER** of it. To *modify* means to *change somewhat*.

Now it will be seen that they modify the noun by expressing certain *qualities* as belonging to the things of which the noun is the name. Thus, **large** shows that the roses possess the *quality* of largeness; **red**, the *quality* of redness; **fragrant**, the *quality* of having a sweet smell. For this reason, such words are sometimes spoken of as **QUALIFYING** the noun to which they are added.

4. Some few words modify nouns, though they do not express a quality as belonging to them: as when we speak of

A rose, the rose, yonder rose, this rose, two roses,
our roses, some roses, many roses, etc.

But such words are not numerous; so that nearly all the words that modify nouns do so by expressing a quality.

5. In Grammar, a word that modifies, *i.e.*, limits or qualifies in any way, a noun, is called an **ADJECTIVE**. The word *adjective* merely means something *added*—that is, added to a noun by way of limitation or description of it.

DEFINITION.—An **adjective** is a word used to modify a noun.

Exercise 26.—Mention all the adjectives in the following sentences, and say why they are adjectives:—

1. A savage dog bit me. 2. The cold winds blow. 3. A pelting rain falls. 4. The golden sun shines. 5. Thin paper tears easily. 6. Two tall men met me. 7. These children sing. 8. Industrious boys usually

succeed. 9. The brave soldier returned home. 10. Some trees grow slowly. 11. Many beautiful birds never sing. 12. Yonder tall brick chimney took fire. 13. The dead leaves fall. 14. A rainy day spoiled our fun. 15. The vivid lightning flashed. 16. Our genial summer days are over.

Exercise 27.—Modify the subjects of the following sentences by limiting the noun by as many suitable adjectives as you can:—

1. — men worship God. 2. — man gropes his way. 3. — bee gathers honey. 4. — tree is withering. 5. — wind blew down the barn. 6. — elm bends. 7. — pane let in the cold air. 8. — general lost his life. 9. — sailors fell overboard. 10. — ships are in sight. 11. — woman sobbed bitterly. 12. — breeze blew, — foam flew. 13. — dog knows some tricks. 14. — accident happened. 15. — leader fell. 16. — man was once a soldier.

6. We have now seen how a noun used as the subject of a sentence can be modified by one or more adjectives; the following examples show that a noun *in any part of the sentence* can be modified in the same way: thus,

1. A kind boy helped the old man to carry his heavy load.
2. The bright silvery moon lighted the dreary path of the weary traveller.

Exercise 28.—Modify the nouns in the following by prefixing suitable adjectives:—

1. We live in — house. 2. I have — terrier. 3. — boy has — pigeons. 4. — farm belongs to my uncle. 5. — horse is drawing — load. 6. — mother has — dress. 7. — leak may sink — ship. 8. — monkey stole — cake. 9. — wind blew down — chimney. 10. — canary is dead. 11. — horse has — load to draw. 12. I managed to escape from — bull.

Oral Analysis.—*A poor old man begged some food.*

Model.—In this sentence *a poor old man* is the complete subject; *man* means that about which the assertion is made; therefore it is the bare subject or noun; it is modified by the three adjective words, *a*, *poor*, and *old*. *Begged some food* is the complete predicate; *begged* is the word that makes the assertion about *man*; therefore it is the bare predicate or verb.

Written Analysis.—*Many poisonous plants abounded.*

Model.—Subject *plants*.
 Modifiers of subject: 1, *many*; 2, *poisonous*.
 Predicate *abounded*.

Exercise 29.—Analyze, and parse as far as you are able, the sentences in Exercise 23.

LESSON X.

PREDICATE ADJECTIVES.—PREDICATE NOUNS.

1. **Predicate Adjectives.**—Sometimes we wish to say that the subject possesses some quality: for instance, that iron has the quality of usefulness; or that certain hats have the quality of whiteness. We cannot express this thought by saying

Iron useful; Those hats white;

for such groups of words do not make statements (Lesson II.). But if we join the noun **iron** to the adjective **useful** by the verb **is**, and the noun **hats** to the adjective **white** by the verb **are**, and say

Iron is useful; Those hats are white;

we make statements that express our meaning fully. By means of **is** and **are**, we assert about the subject the quality expressed by the adjective.

2. The verbs that are chiefly used for this purpose are **am**, **is**, **are**; **was**, **were**, etc., and each of such verbs is called a **COPULA**, or tie; because it *couples*, as it were, to the subject, the quality or limitation expressed by the adjective. Thus,

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	
	COPULA.	ADJECTIVE.
Iron	{ is was }	useful.
Hats	{ are were }	white.

Notice carefully that in sentences such as these it requires the copula and the adjective to make the statement, in other words, to form the predicate. For, if we leave the adjective out of the predicate and use the verb alone, the meaning will be very different from that which we wish to convey; for instance, if we say **Iron is**, or **Hats are**, we are asserting the *existence* of iron and hats; i.e., that there is such a thing as iron, and that there are such things as hats. These, however, though true, are not the assertions we wish to make.

NOUNS.

say that
n has the
quality of

son II.).
the verb
verb are,

By means
expressed

e am, is,
COPULA,
quality

he copula
form the
d use the
we wish
asserting
iron, and
, are not

3. Adjectives that thus form part of the predicate are called **PREDICATE ADJECTIVES**, or are said to be used **PREDICATIVELY**. And this name distinguishes adjectives so used in the predicate from adjectives like those in Exs. 1 and 2, par. 6, of the last lesson, which modify a noun *in any part of the sentence* without being part of the assertion made about it. These latter are called **ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES**, or are said to be used **ATTRIBUTIVELY**.

The same adjective may be used predicatively in one sentence, and attributively in another: thus,

This man is old (pred.); This old man is blind (att.).

Or, even in the same sentence: thus,

This old man was old when I first knew him.

4. The following examples show that when an adjective is used predicatively it can modify a *pronoun* just as freely as a noun. We can say equally well

George is truthful; or, He is truthful.

The peach was ripe; or, It was ripe.

5. **Predicate Nouns.**—The same verbs, **am, is, are, etc.**, also help sometimes to make an assertion about the subject, by joining to it a **noun**. Thus,

I am a Canadian.

Snakes are reptiles.

Ontario is a Province.

That man was the leader.

In this case, too, it takes both the copula and the noun to express what we want to assert about the subject; the two together, therefore, form the predicate.

Nouns that thus form part of the predicate are called **PREDICATE NOUNS**.

DEFINITION.—A **copula** is a verb that makes an assertion about its subject by joining to it an adjective or a noun.

DEFINITION.—A **predicate adjective** or a **predicate noun** is one that is used with a copula to form the predicate.

6. We have seen that the predicate made by the copula alone is incomplete: this is true, not only of **is**, but also of all verbs

that are used as copulas. For, if we use with a subject the verbs **become, seem, look, appear**, and several others, we shall find that our predicate is incomplete till we have added an adjective or noun. Thus,

He **becomes, seems, looks, appears**....attentive.

That man **became, seemed, looked, appeared**....a soldier.

Oral Analysis.—*Four strong horses were necessary.*

In this sentence, *four strong horses* is the complete subject; *horses* names that about which the assertion is made; therefore it is the bare subject or noun; it is modified by the two adjective words *four* and *strong*. *Were necessary* is the complete predicate; it is composed of the copula *were* and the predicate adjective *necessary*.

Parsing.—*The funny little squirrel was a great pet.*

Model.—*The* modifies the noun *squirrel*; therefore it is an adjective.
funny “ “ “ “ “ “
little “ “ “ “ “ “
squirrel is a name; therefore it is a noun; it is subject of the verb *was*.
was makes the assertion about the subject *squirrel*; therefore it is a verb.
a modifies the noun *pet*; therefore it is an adjective.
great “ “ “ “ “ “
pet is a name; therefore it is a noun; it is a predicate noun after the verb *was*.

Exercise 30—In the following sentences separate the subject from the predicate by a short line; draw two strokes under the copula, and one under the predicate adjective or predicate noun. Examples,

The day | was hot and sultry.

Gold | is a metal.

1. Walking is healthy. 2. James is honest and industrious. 3. Drunkenness is degrading. 4. A goose is a biped. 5. She was a widow. 6. The beautiful bride was charming and attractive. 7. The boy is truthful. 8. I am hungry. 9. He was a sincere friend. 10. The day was cold and dark and dreary. 11. Drunkenness is a degrading habit. 12. It was a glorious victory. 13. Four horses were necessary. 14. The snow was their winding sheet. 15. She is sick. 16. The herdsman's arm is strong. 17. Great was the joy. 18. Few and short were the prayers. 19. A man severe he was. 20. That stranger is my cousin. 21. A dainty plant is the ivy green.

Exercise 31.—By means of a copula, and a predicate adjective or a predicate noun, say something about each of the following subjects. Where possible, qualify the nouns by attributive adjectives.

Model.—*Newfoundland dogs are good swimmers.*

- | | | | |
|------------|------------|------------|------------------|
| 1. Dogs | 7. Pride | 13. Water | 19. Beauty |
| 2. Spiders | 8. Reading | 14. Sleep | 20. We |
| 3. He | 9. Skating | 15. Spring | 21. The day |
| 4. Roses | 10. Peace | 16. They | 22. His symptoms |
| 5. She | 11. Ink | 17. Gold | 23. The object |
| 6. It | 12. Books | 18. Time | 24. Last summer |

REMARK 1.—Sometimes the names of persons and places, and words formed from these names, are used as adjectives: thus,

The Tudor period. A Toronto firm. Canadian scenery.

CAUTION.—Such adjectives must begin with a capital letter. (See last Examples.)

REM. 2.—When two or more adjectives are used predicatively (Lesson X.), the last one is joined to the one before it by **and**: thus,

Glass is hard, brittle, and transparent.

But when two or more adjectives are used **attributively**, the word **and** is generally omitted: thus,

I have a large, black, Newfoundland dog.

REM. 3.—Modifiers must be placed where they will sound best: thus,

A muscular, ragged, tall beggar

does not sound so well as

A tall, ragged, muscular beggar.

CAUTION.—Several adjectives modifying the same word must be separated from each other by commas. (See last Examples.)

Exercise 32.—**Errors for Correction.**—Point out the faults in the following sentences, and, where you can, tell why they are faults:—

1. Every boy must attend to *their* lessons
2. *Ain't* you coming out to night
3. I *love* the spring of the year *cause* violets *comes* then
4. My aunt has bought me a great large wax doll
5. Who done that? It was me and him.
6. Them cherries is quite ripe they *wont* hurt nobody *a bit*.
7. The canary's song is musical clear and sweet?
8. A murmuring clear stream was near by
9. A fiery bright long meteor *fled* across the sky
10. All european travellers admire our canadian woods in the fall.
11. We was reading an interesting short story
12. Cant I have it after you *are* done with it
13. *Praps* it wasn't Jack that you seen after all
14. Oatmeal is a easily-procured wholesome cheap food;
15. A great red and angry bull ran after us.
16. We are learning the stuart period of english history
17. He was a *industrious hardworking* honest lad

LESSON XI.

MODIFIERS OF PREDICATE.—ADVERB.

1. We have seen that every predicate must contain a verb, because without a verb there can be no statement. But it frequently happens that the statement made by the verb alone is too indefinite, that is, it is not exact enough. Thus, if we say to a person

The soldiers marched,

he may want to know **how, when, where** they marched. And we may have to modify our indefinite statement, and say

The soldiers marched	{	steadily, which would tell him how .
		yesterday, " " " when .
		homeward, " " " where .

So, if we say

The children behave **well**; My uncle arrived **yesterday**;
He sits **here**; She sang **twice**;

the words **well, yesterday, here, twice**, modify, by describing or limiting, in one way or another, the *assertions* made by the verbs **behave, arrived, sits, and sang**.

2. Words which thus modify the verb are called **ADVERBS**, because they are *added* to the verb, as the adjective is added to the noun, to modify or change its meaning in some way.

Exercise 33.—Point out the adverbs in the following sentences:—

1. The lion roared terribly. 2. The sun shone brightly. 3. That boy swims badly. 4. The robin rises early. 5. Sparrows eat greedily. 6. The master arrived suddenly. 7. He paid dearly for his fault. 8. I saw your friend yesterday. 9. Three merchants failed lately. 10. The king treated him cruelly. 11. My teacher praised me highly for my neat exercise. 12. We take a walk daily.

3. We found in the last lesson that an adjective, with a verb to act as copula, may form the predicate of a sentence. Thus,

He is honest. The man **was** civil.

Now it may happen that assertions like these are not quite

true, but will become so if we modify the meaning of our adjectives somewhat. Thus,

He is	{	hardly	}	honest.
The man was		scarcely		civil.

Or,

He is	{	very	}	honest.
The man was		quite		civil.
		most		

4. Words like these, that modify predicate adjectives, are called **ADVERBS**, as well as the words that modify verbs. And the same adverbs that modify predicate adjectives can also modify adjectives in any part of the sentence. Thus,

A **very** civil man waited upon me. A **quite** surprising event took place. A **most** shocking accident happened.

5. Again, it sometimes happens that when we have modified our verb in the manner shown in par. 1 of this lesson, it yet fails to express exactly our meaning; and in order to make it do so, we may have to modify our modifying word, that is, to modify our adverb. Thus, if we wished to express to what extent the soldiers marched steadily, we should have to say, perhaps,

The soldiers marched	{	very, or	}	steadily.
		quite, or		
		most		

But the words that we have used here to modify the *adverb* **steadily** are the same that just now served to modify the *adjectives* **honest** and **civil**.

Hence we see that adverbs are sometimes used to modify adverbs as well as verbs and adjectives, and we are led to the following

DEFINITION.—An **adverb** is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or sometimes another adverb.

Exercise 34.—Point out the adverbs in the following sentences, and say whether they modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs:—

1. The wind was bitterly cold.
2. The frost was intensely keen.
3. We departed immediately.
4. My sister is almost well.
5. The poor

woman was much distressed. 6. He thinks too highly of himself. 7. I once saw a mole in my daily walks. 8. I take a walk daily. 9. The stars are very bright. 10. We met a very civil man. 11. He is always very happy. 12. The Indians in their snowshoes walked quite fast over the exceedingly deep snow. 13. I commonly rise before seven. 14. He very nearly lost his life. 15. This very foolish child fears the dark exceedingly. 16. And the good south wind still blew behind.

17. To every man upon this earth
Death cometh, soon or late.

Exercise 35.—Fill up the blanks in the following sentences with as many suitable adverbs as you can think of:—

1. The invalid walks ——. 2. I saw your friend ——. 3. The wounded soldier is — well ——. 4. The bruised place is — red. 5. His — bad conduct — cost him his situation. 6. My — kind friend — stayed with me all night, because I was — afraid. 7. That lady dresses —. 8. She — visits the poor. 9. The stranger was — attentive to me. 10. The children — took their places. 11. He went —. 12. I am — glad to see you.

Exercise 36.—Compose sentences, using the following adverbs as modifiers of the verb or of some adverb or adjective, used in the sentence:—

Sweetly, cleverly, far, now, once, abroad, swiftly, sometimes, to-night, above, backwards, homewards, frequently, constantly, wholly, certainly, badly, often, slowly, by and by, yesterday, before, thus.

Exercise 37.—Compose or quote four sentences in which adverbs shall modify verbs.

Compose or quote four sentences in which adverbs shall modify adverbs.

Compose or quote four sentences in which adverbs shall modify adjectives.

Oral Analysis.—*An exceedingly high tide occurred very recently.*

Model.—In this sentence *an exceedingly high tide* is the complete subject; *tide* names that about which the assertion is made; therefore it is the bare subject or noun; it is modified by the adjective words *an* and *high*; the adjective *high* is modified by the adverb *exceedingly*; the word *occurred* makes the assertion about *tide*, therefore it is the bare predicate or verb; the verb *occurred* is modified by the adverb *recently*, and the adverb *recently* by the adverb *very*.

Parsing.—*That intensely painful operation was quite successful lately.*

Model.—*That* modifies the noun *operation*; therefore it is an adjective.

intensely modifies the adjective *painful*; therefore it is an adverb,

<i>painful</i>	modifies the noun <i>operation</i> ; therefore it is an adjective.
<i>operation</i>	is the name of something; therefore it is a noun.
<i>was</i>	makes the assertion about the subject <i>operation</i> ; therefore it is a verb.
<i>quite</i>	modifies the adjective <i>successful</i> ; therefore it is an adverb.
<i>successful</i>	modifies the noun <i>operation</i> ; therefore it is an adjective.
<i>lately</i>	modifies the verb <i>was</i> ; therefore it is an adverb.

LESSON XII.

COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.—OBJECT.

1. The assertion made by some verbs is complete in itself, and we are satisfied with what the verb alone tells; as,

The baby sleeps. The boys run. The sea roared.

2. But often the statement made by the verb alone is not complete; for, as we saw in Lesson X., the assertion made by verbs that act as copulas is always incomplete without the adjective or the noun which they join to the subject. Thus,

He seemed attentive. The man appeared a soldier.

3. We have now to learn that the assertion made by the verb alone is sometimes incomplete for another reason, and needs to be completed in a different way. Thus, if I say

I saw —; The carpenter builds —;

you naturally want to know what I saw,—what the carpenter builds; and I must *complete* my statement by saying, for instance,

I saw the fireworks. The carpenter builds houses.

Verbs which require to be thus completed are mostly verbs which express action, and they are completed by naming the person or the thing acted upon, which is called the **OBJECT**.

Other examples of verbs which require to be completed by objects are

The sun gives **light**. We admired the **pictures**.

An Indian caught a **bear**. I saw **it**.

4. Of course, in naming the person or thing acted upon, we can use either the name, or a pronoun to stand for the name. Examples:—

I helped **George**; or, I helped **him**.

He took the **books**; or, He took **them**.

An easy way of telling whether a verb requires to be completed by an object or not, and of telling what that object is if it does, is to put **whom** or **what** after the verb, and then ask a question. If the question requires an answer, the verb must be completed, and the word that answers the question is the object that completes it. Example:—

The teacher taught the **boy**.

Taught whom? The *boy*—an object; hence the verb needs completion, and *boy* is the object that completes it.

The moon shines.

Shines whom? Shines what? No answer; hence the verb needs no completion.

Oral Analysis.—*The faithful old dog followed his kind master everywhere.*

Model.—Subject and predicate as analyzed before; the predicate *followed* is completed by the object *master*, and *master* is modified by the adjective words *his* and *kind*.

Written Analysis.—The same sentence.

- Model.**— I. Subject, *dog*.
 II. Adjective modifiers of subject, 1. *the*, 2. *faithful*, 3. *old*.
 III. Predicate, *followed*.
 IV. Object, *master*.
 V. Adjective modifiers of object, 1. *his*, 2. *kind*.
 VI. Adverb modifier of predicate, *everywhere*.

Exercise 38.—Write out the following exercise, and underline the object where the verb is completed by one.

1. The tree waves. 2. The tree produces fruit. 3. The cow lows.
4. The cow gives milk. 5. The water boils. 6. Water surrounded the house.
7. Shepherds watch. 8. Shepherds watch their flocks. 9. The hunter shot.
10. The hunter shot the deer. 11. Serpents creep. 12. James praised his brother.
13. The mother loves her child. 14. The

[PART I.]

stars glitter to-night. 15. We walked away. 16. Lucy ran upstairs. 17. The carpenter made a round table. 18. The raven croaks loudly. 19. We love him. 20. I see them. 21. The invalid recovers. 22. The physician cured the invalid.

Exercise 39.—Complete the predicate of each of the following sentences by putting a suitable **object** after the **verb**:—

1. My terrier caught —. 2. The hunter shot —. 3. Our hens lay —. 4. Nelson gained —. 5. Dark clouds cover —. 6. The clouds poured down —. 7. Reading improves our —. 8. The masons are building —. 9. The river has overflowed —. 10. A thick cloud enveloped the —. 11. The captain led on —. 12. Diligent pupils study —. 13. Alfred the Great made many —. 14. The curfew tolls —. 15. Tumultuous murder shook —. 16. We buried — darkly at dead of night. 17. But Linden saw —. 18. The warrior bowed —, and tamed — of fire.

Exercise 40.—Here are given eight bare subjects and bare predicates; **qualify** the subjects and **complete** and **modify** the predicates in as many ways as you can.

Model.— <i>A good</i>	} boy uses {	<i>his powers conscientiously.</i>
<i>" sharp</i>		<i>" faculties advantageously.</i>
<i>" lazy</i>		<i>" opportunities very badly.</i>
<i>An industrious</i>		<i>" time well.</i>
<i>A worthless</i>		<i>" friends ungratefully.</i>

1. — sun ripens —. 2. — cats catch —. 3. — merchant sells —. 4. — rain moistens —. 5. — horses draw —. 6. — child obeys —. 7. — gardener digs —. 8. — tailor makes —.

Exercise 41.—**Errors for Correction.**—Correct all errors in the following, and say why they are errors:—

CAUTIONS.—1. Adverbs, as well as adjectives, should be placed where they sound best; provided, that when so placed, they modify the right word. Ex.—The soldiers marched quite steadily, sounds better than The soldiers quite steadily marched. 2. An adjective should not be used where an adverb is required. Never say: Tom writes good; but say: Tom writes well. 3. An adverb should not be used where an adjective is required. Never say: "These roses smell sweetly," but say, sweet. And never say: "She looks prettily," but say, pretty; for in these last sentences you do not want to tell how the smelling or looking is done, and should therefore not use adverbs.

1. We merely refer to the order, not the importance of the subjects. 2. She acted so bad that she had to be spoke to. 3. The Chinese chiefly live upon rice. 4. We always should do our duty. 5. He must have certainly been sick. 6. I was *very* annoyed. 7. The work will be never finished. 8. Come here quick, and leave them things alone. 9. The cat *only* caught one mouse. 10. The curtain hung graceful, and the room looked so nicely. 11. That was a decided weak point in his argument. 12. He spoke quite decided on that point. 13. I am *real* glad you *come* yesterday. 14. Your father is sickly, so step as quiet as you can.

LESSON XIII.

OTHER ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB MODIFIERS.—
PREPOSITIONS.

1. You have already learned that we have nouns and pronouns for the bare subject, and verbs for the bare predicate, and that these form the frame-work of the sentence; that we have adjectives to modify the subject, and adverbs to modify the predicate, or even the modifying words themselves; and that the verb may be completed by an object, which may be either a noun or a pronoun. You have now to learn another method of modifying both subject and predicate, which will lead us to discuss another part of speech.

In the following sentences—

1. The cake **in the basket** is spoiled,
2. My pencil rolled **under the table**;

you will perceive that the words **in the basket** show what cake is meant, just as an **adjective** would; and that the words **under the table** show where the pencil rolled, just as an **adverb** would.

Also in the sentences—

- The grass **on the lawn** is wet;
 The book lies **by the lamp**;
 Eager **for money** he became dishonest;

the words **on the lawn** modify as an *adjective* would the *noun* **grass**; the words **by the lamp** modify as an *adverb* would the *verb* **lies**; and the words **for money** modify as an *adverb* would the *adjective* **eager**.

Other examples still are

- The man **at the gate** is my uncle.
 The coat hangs **before the fire**.
 Mother is anxious **about us**.
 Some large bird flew **over the hill behind our house**.

Groups of words like the foregoing, that serve the purpose of adjectives, or adverbs, are called PHRASES.

ERS.—

pronouns
and that
ve adject-
predicate,
verb may
or a pro-
modifying
another

2. You will notice that in each of the foregoing examples the phrase consists of a noun (or a pronoun) preceded by a little word which joins the noun or the pronoun to the word that is modified by the phrase. In the examples given, the words which thus join the word following them to the modified word, are: *in, under, on, by, for, at, before, over, etc.*

The work which these little words have to do is different from that of any of the parts of speech we have hitherto had; they therefore constitute another part of speech. They are called **PREPOSITIONS**—the word means *placed before*—and these words are, in fact, usually placed before the noun or the pronoun which they are to connect to another word.

Exercise 42.—In each one of the following sentences point out: 1st, the phrase or phrases; 2nd, the preposition that joins the noun or pronoun of the phrase, to the noun, verb or adjective modified by the phrase:—

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nder the
ld.

CAUTION.—Care must be taken not to mistake the word which the phrase modifies; for the modified word does not always come immediately before the modifying phrase. For example, the phrase may be placed immediately after a noun, and yet be an adverb modifier of some preceding verb. In the sentence "I put the letter on the table," it is easy to see that the phrase on the table shows where the letter was put, and not what sort of letter was put; it is therefore an adverb modifier of put.

ne noun
ould the
b would

1. Rain fell during the night. 2. The swans on the pond in the park will eat from your hand. 3. The name of my terrier is Snap, what is the name of your dog? 4. Snap lies on the step of the verandah, and barks at all who come to the door. 5. He took a horse from the stable, hitched it to a buggy, and drove quickly along the road toward the city. 6. In hot weather fruits ripen fast. 7. I don't think much of him, I see him often in bad company. 8. She was not among those who landed from the boat. 9. From their nests beneath the rafters sang the swallows.

10. By many names men call us,
In many lands we dwell.

ouse.

urpose of

NOTE TO TEACHER.—The teacher should not proceed till the class have thoroughly mastered this kind of phrase, and can readily point out: 1st, the phrase itself; 2nd, the word (noun, verb, or adjective) modified by it; 3rd, the joining word or preposition; 4th, the word (noun or pronoun) so joined. To this end many more illustrative sentences made by the teacher, or taken from the Exercises, may be necessary.

3. The preposition is sometimes said to "relate" the noun or pronoun of its phrase to some preceding noun, verb or adjective,

because it indicates a certain kind of relation as existing between the two words that it joins. It is not always easy to tell exactly what this relation is. But in most cases it can be easily seen. Thus, **of** generally shows the relation of *possession*; in other words, it joins the name of a possessor to that of a thing possessed, as in

The palace of the king.

Here **of** is said to show the relation between **palace** and **king**.

On, in, under, near, beside, etc., show the relation of *position*, as

The book **lies on** (in, under, near, beside, etc.) the box.

And these words are said to show the relation between **lies** and **box**.

By and **with** often show the relation of *means* or *instrument*, as in

He **burst open** the door **by main force**.

I **shot** the mad dog **with my rifle**.

And so with other prepositions. We are thus led to the following

DEFINITION.—A **preposition** is a word that joins a noun or pronoun to some preceding word, and shows the relation between them.

Exercise 43.—With regard to the following sentences, say: 1st, whether the phrases they contain are adjective or adverb phrases, and why; 2nd, between what words the prepositions show relation:—

1. Two workmen fell from the roof. 2. That book on the box belongs to me. 3. We came over the hills. 4. A path over the hills leads you to our house. 5. I threw the ball to him. 6. They ran around the house. 7. A verandah around a house makes it cool in summer. 8. Desirous of knowledge, he studied intensely. 9. We found her at home. 10. Our house is in the valley below the hill. 11. That boy is too eager for praise. 12. Earnest in her work, she never failed. 13. On our way we passed by a church. 14. The gentleman in the garden gave three apples to us and five to them. 15. In silence and in sadness she passed through the hall.

Exercise 44.—Fill up the following sentences with suitable prepositions:—

1. Men learn — experience. 2. We come home — school — four o'clock — the afternoon. 3. I will wait — you — the corner. 4. He stood — the window. 5. A meteor shot — the sky. 6. A letter — his brother was received — the day. 7. The blind man —

his way home fell — the river, but was saved — the shepherd who lives — the cottage — the bend — the stream. 8. We hid — the bushes — the garden.

9. The vine still clings — the mouldering wall,
But — every gust the dead leaves fall.

4. The idea conveyed by a phrase can in many instances be conveyed equally well by a corresponding adjective or adverb. Thus,

PHRASE.	ADJ.
An apron of leather	means the same thing as a leather apron.

PHRASE.	ADV.
He acted in an insolent manner	is the same as he acted insolently.

But more often we are forced to use a phrase because we have no corresponding adjective or adverb, as in Examples 1, 2, par. 1.

If the preposition relate the principal word of the phrase to a foregoing noun, the phrase is an adjective modifier; if to a foregoing adjective or verb, it is an adverb modifier. Such phrases are called, for short, ADJECTIVE PHRASES and ADVERB PHRASES.

Exercise 45.—In the following sentences substitute adjectives or adverbs for the preposition phrases, or preposition phrases for the adjectives and adverbs, as the case may be:—

1. The orator speaks fluently. 2. Here I take my stand. 3. Some writers compose with great ease. 4. That person in distress called loudly for help. 5. In hot weather fruits ripen very quickly. 6. Everything was done with prudence and wisdom. 7. The game went on very spiritedly. 8. A post of wood will not last so long as a post of iron. 9. Many important discoveries have been made accidentally. 10. Some emigrants from Iceland are settled in Manitoba. 11. In all haste he despatched the letter. 12. You should treat the aged respectfully. 13. He always acts with judgment. 14. Ropes of hemp are superior to ropes of cotton. 15. Steel knives cut better than silver knives. 17. You are acting thoughtfully. 18. Leather aprons are better than linen aprons.

Written Analysis.—*The bricklayer on the scaffold in his haste carelessly dropped a broken brick from his hand.*

Model. —	I. Subject,	bricklayer.
	II. Modifiers of subject,	1. <i>The</i> , 2. <i>on the scaffold</i> .
	III. Predicate,	<i>dropped</i> .
	IV. Object,	<i>brick</i> .
	V. Modifiers of object,	1. <i>a</i> , 2. <i>broken</i> .
	VI. Adverb mod. of pred.,	1. <i>in his haste</i> , 2. <i>carelessly</i> , 3. <i>from his hand</i> .

Parsing.—Same sentence.

Model.—(Other parts of speech as in former models).

on is a word that joins the noun *scaffold* to the noun *bricklayer*, and shows the relation between them; therefore it is a preposition.

in is a word that joins the noun *haste* to the verb *dropped*, and shows the relation between them; therefore it is a preposition.

from is a word that joins the noun *hand* to the verb *dropped*, and shows the relation between them; therefore it is a preposition.

Exercise 46.—Analyze and parse each of the sentences in Exercise 39.

Explanations.—Besides the abbreviations given in previous lessons, the following are in common use.

Names of the days of the week:—

Sun.	for Sunday.	Thurs.	for Thursday.
Mon.	" Monday.	Fri.	" Friday.
Tues.	" Tuesday.	Sat.	" Saturday.
Wed.	" Wednesday.		

Names of the months of the year:—

Jan.	for January.	—	July.
Feb.	" February.	Aug.	for August.
Mar.	" March.	Sept.	" September.
Apr.	" April.	Oct.	" October.
—	May.	Nov.	" November.
—	June.	Dec.	" December.

A.D. stands for Anno Domini, and means in the year of our Lord.

B.C. " before Christ, " before the birth of Christ.

inst. " instant, " (of) the present month.

ult. " ultimo, " " past " "

prox. " proximo, " " next " "

N.B. " *nota bene*, " notice well.

P.S. " postscript, " an addition to a letter after

it has been finished. It should be signed with the initials only of the writer.

Sometimes a word is contracted by leaving a letter, or letters, out of the middle: as *e'er* for *ever*; *e'en* for *even*, etc. The place of the omitted letter is marked by a comma written above the line and called an APOSTROPHE.

Exercise 47.—Errors for Correction.—Correct the faults in the following sentences:—

CAUTIONS.—1. Preposition phrases, like other modifiers, must be placed as near as possible to the words they modify. 2. Care must be taken in the choice of prepositions, since the meaning of the verb often depends on the preposition by which it is followed: thus, to correspond with (by letter); to correspond to (to agree); to differ from (in opinion); to differ with (to wrangle). 3. Nouns, too, and adjectives, must be followed by the prepositions that suit them: thus, preferable to; worthy of; different from; abhorrence of, etc., etc.

1. In the month of Febru a. d. 1884 there was 28 days and there was 4 Wednesdays. 2. A brave prudent honorable man was chosen. 3. Are you reconciled *with* your old enemy? 4. His abhorrence to going to school cannot be overcome except *with* kindness. 5. We must profit *from* experience if we wish to be acquitted *from* the charge of folly. 6. Wanted a young man to deliver groceries of a religious turn of mind. 7. I seen that the ball was going to be *ketched* with half an eye. 8. I shall try *and* come to school more regular in future. 9. They halted with a river on their backs. 10. He divided his property *between* his four sons. 11. Please mother don't be angry at me I *haven't* done *nothing*. 12. The elizabethan style of Architecture is *awfully* admired. 13. The tall man is looking at us with a glass eye. 14. Did you take notice to what he said.

LESSON XIV.

HOW SENTENCES ARE JOINED.—CLAUSES, CONJUNCTIONS.

1. When we have only one thought to express, *i.e.*, one statement to make, we express it in a sentence having but one subject and one predicate. Such a sentence is called a **SIMPLE SENTENCE**.

2. But in the course of speech we often need to group two or more thoughts together, as

The sun rose **and** the mist disappeared.

Here you will see there are two thoughts expressed, two assertions made, and that these two assertions or sentences are joined together by the little word **and**. In

My book is on the table, **or** someone has taken it,

the two sentences are joined by the word **or**. Other examples are

They lost their way, for the night was dark.

He was rich, yet he was not happy.

He went, but I stayed.

She played **while** they danced.

Though he was poor, he would not work.

A word that joins sentences in this way is called a **CONJUNCTION**; that is, a word that *conjoins* or *joins together*. Hence the conjunctions that join the foregoing sentences are

and, or, for, yet, but, while, though.

3. But these joining words, and others like them, will do more than merely join; for, *if we are careful to select the right one*, we can show by it the nature of the thoughts in the sentences that are joined. For example, if we wish to show that the sun's rising *caused* the mist to disappear, we can choose the conjunction **therefore**, and say

The sun rose, **therefore** the mist disappeared.

Or, using **because**, we can say

The mist disappeared **because** the sun rose ;

or, changing the order of the last sentences,

Because the sun rose, the mist disappeared.

If we wish to show that the second thought is opposed to, or contrasted with, the first, we can find joining words (conjunctions) that will show the opposition or contrast. For example,

Tom goes to school, $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{but} \\ \text{yet} \\ \text{still} \end{array} \right\}$ he does not learn.

Again, if we wish to make it plain that something took place at the same time as another thing, we can do so by using the conjunctions **when** or **while**. For example,

I had the toothache { while } I was going home.
 { when }

examples

In this way we endeavor to show, by means of the conjunction we employ, what is the nature of the connection between the thoughts in the sentences that we join.

4. But some conjunctions, especially **and**, **but**, **or**, are also sometimes used to connect, not two sentences, but two words in the same sentence.

CONJUNC-
tence the

It will be noticed, however, from the examples given below, that the words thus joined are always used in the same way in the sentence, *i.e.*, they are (except that nouns and pronouns may be so joined) the same part of speech, they occur in the same part of the sentence, and they belong to the same word in the sentence: thus,

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t one, we
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n's rising
junction

A proud though childlike form.

Poor but honest parents.

(ADJECTIVES.)

He went by and with my consent.

A boat to and from Hamilton.

(PREPOSITIONS.)

The boy and the girl came.

(NOUN SUBJECTS.)

He and she came.

(PRONOUN SUBJECTS.)

I like the rose or the violet.

(NOUN OBJECTS.)

We saw you and them.

(PRONOUN OBJECTS.)

They and John helped Jane and me.

(NOUN & PRONOUN SUBS. & OBS.)

The tide ebbs and flows.

(VERBS.)

Cromwell ruled sternly but well.

(ADVERBS.)

A boy of strong mind but of weak body.

(ADJECTIVE PHRASES.)

On the hills and in the valleys lies the snow.

(ADVERB PHRASES.)

We are thus led to the following

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ctions)

DEFINITION.—A **conjunction** is a word that joins together sentences, or words, or phrases, used in the same way in a sentence.

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NOTE TO TEACHER.—Young pupils are not unfrequently puzzled to distinguish between prepositions and conjunctions, owing to the fact that the work of both is to join. But they must be led to see that the kind of joining done by these two parts of speech is very different. The preposition joins a noun or pronoun to some preceding word (noun, verb or adjective) by way of qualifying or limiting such word. Thus its work is to join and show a relation between words. The conjunction, on the other hand, joins and shows a relation (*i.e.*, the connection in meaning) between sentences; or, if it joins words (as the preposition does), the words are the same part of speech, *etc.*, as shown in the examples given above.

5. A single statement or assertion is, as we have seen, called a simple sentence. But the name sentence is also given to a com-

bination of simple sentences like those in par. 1 of this lesson. To avoid the confusion that might arise from calling a combination of simple sentences a sentence, and each simple sentence in the combination also a sentence, each of the simple sentences that is joined to make the larger sentence is called a **CLAUSE**. Thus, of the sentence

The mist disappeared because the sun rose,
the clauses or simple sentences are

The mist disappeared. The sun rose.

DEFINITION — *A clause is a sentence that is joined with one or more other sentences to make a larger sentence.*

A **clause** must be carefully distinguished from a **phrase**. A clause is a sentence with a subject and a predicate; a phrase is a collection of words that are connected in meaning, but it is not a sentence, since it has neither subject nor predicate.

Exercise 48.—Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences, and mention the clauses which they connect:—

1. He pushed me and I fell. 2. They had cake, but we had fruit. 3. The girl screamed because she was afraid. 4. The battle continued, though it was dark. 5. It rained, yet we started. 6. It was raining when we started. 7. He was laughing as he went out. 8. He neither saw nor heard anything amiss. 9. The child was weak in body, but strong in spirit. 10. Troy was lost, although Hector defended it. 11. I am certain that they have come, for I saw them. 12. The watch is on the table, or someone has taken it. 13. He is going to Toronto that he may see his brother. 14. You and Jane may remain if you wish. 15. Either you or I must go. 16. You were gone, else you would have heard. 17. Jack and Jill went up the hill. 18. Jack fell down and broke his crown. 19. I shall go to Montreal on Thursday or on Friday. 20. On the hills and in the valleys lies the snow. 21. To every one upon this earth, death cometh soon or late.

Exercise 49.—Join together the following clauses and parts of clauses by proper conjunctions:—

1. It may seem strange, — it is true. 2. He succeeded, — he persevered. 3. No sooner had the workmen left — the roof fell in. 4. — James — John will be there. 5. Gold — silver are found in Colorado — in New Mexico. 6. A garden is not only pleasant, — useful. 7. They had full warning, — they are without excuse. 8. It rained heavily — we started. 9. — you say so, I believe it. 10. Iron is more useful — gold. 11. I met your friend — I was going home. 12. You may expect us — the day is fine. 13. — you come, there will be no fun. 14. There will be no fun — you don't come. 15. The day was — too hot, — too cold. 16. The fact was so evident — it needed no proof.

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Parsing.—A conjunction is parsed by naming the clauses or words or phrases that it joins, and telling the relation of the thoughts to each other.

John went home, but I remained in school.

Model.—*but* joins the clauses *John went home* and *I remained in school*; therefore it is a conjunction; it shows contrast between the statements.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—The relation of one sentence to another need not be insisted on till the classes of conjunctions are understood.

LESSON XV.

INTERJECTIONS.

1. We have now learned the names of seven classes of words or **parts of speech**. We have also learned the office which the words of each of these classes fill in building up sentences. We have found, for instance, that in a sentence the **noun** and the **pronoun** can serve as subjects of the sentence, or as objects of a verb, or as words that can be related to other words by prepositions; that the office of the **verb** is to make the assertion about the subject; that the office of the **adjective** is to modify a noun in any part of the sentence, and, when used predicatively, to modify a pronoun acting as subject; that the office of the **adverb** is to modify verbs, adverbs, and adjectives; that the office of the **preposition** is to go before a noun or pronoun, and with these form a phrase used to modify a noun, a verb or an adjective; lastly, we have found that it is the office of **conjunctions** to serve as links joining the clauses of sentences, and, in certain cases, words or phrases.

2. There yet remains another class of words, which, for the sake of convenience, are called a part of speech, though they really form no part of the sentence. This last part of speech comprises words which we are in the habit of uttering under the

impulse of some strong feeling: joy, surprise, sorrow, contempt; or when we wish to call attention, etc., as

Oh! Shame! Hark! Hurrah! Alas! Bravo!

These words, and others like them, are thrown in among the words of the sentence, and for this reason are called INTERJECTIONS. The name "interjection" signifies something *interjected*, that is, *thrown into the midst of* something else, and this something else is the sentence.

The name given to these words implies, what is really the case, that they are not parts of the sentence itself: they are not put together with other parts to make up sentences. Hence, though it is proper enough, because convenient, to call interjections a part of speech, they are not so in the same sense as the others.

DEFINITION.—*An interjection is an exclamation expressive of feeling.*

Exercise 50.—Point out the interjections in the following:—

1. What! are you here? 2. Hurrah! the game is ours. 3. Oh, for a calm and thankful heart! 4. "But she is in her grave, — and oh, the difference to me!" 5. I warned him often, but, alas! he heeded not. 6. We heard the pilot shout "Boat, ahoi!" 7. Strange! I never thought of that. 8. Up, up, Glentarkin! rouse thee, ho! 9. But hark! what means yon faint halloo? 10. Dear me! how did it happen? 11. Fire! Fire! the house is in flames. 12. But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell.

Interjections, or the clauses in which they are used, are followed by this mark !—called an EXCLAMATION MARK. When the sign follows the interjection, the next word does not begin with a capital.

We generally use the form O (without a comma) before the name of a person spoken to; and the form Oh (followed by a comma or an exclamation mark) to indicate glad surprise, painful feeling, or strong desire.

Exercise 51.—Errors for Correction.—Point out and correct all errors in the following:—

CAUTION.—The Interjection O must always be a capital.

1. He went to bed and he did not sleep. 2. It may seem strange for it is true. 3. I will tell but you won't tell *nobody*. 4. I seen how it was done cause I watched close. 5. They saw the storm coming and they took no precautions 6. Them apples *aint* ripe dont eat 'em 7. This stick is longer nor that. 8. I cant find it *nowheres*. 9. It wont be done *without* I do it. 10. Oh Jane my brother has got the measles so bad. 11. Alas we've won the game 12. Hello we shall certainly be drowned. 13. My mother looked out and said dear me what a storm are the doors and windows all closed.

LESSON XVI.

DIFFERENT VALUES OF WORDS.

1. **Nouns as Adjectives.**—From the knowledge we have now gained about the parts of speech, we see that each one has its own work to do in the sentence,—its own office to fill in enabling us to express our thoughts.

Now, when we have a thought in our mind which we wish to express, we usually seek to express it in as few words as possible. One reason for this is, that we wish to save ourselves the trouble of using more words than are necessary; another is that we wish the person to whom we are speaking or writing to get the thought into his mind as quickly and with as little trouble as possible. Hence, so long as our meaning is clear, the fewer words we use the better.

2. This desire to be brief has caused many irregularities in the language; among others, it has led us sometimes to use one part of speech for another. For instance, if we want to tell a person that a certain star that usually shines after sunset shone brightly last night, we can say

The star **that shines in the evening** shone brightly last night.

In this sentence the words **that shines in the evening** are used to tell to what star we refer, and in them the word **evening**, as being the name of a portion of time, is a *noun*. But we can express the same thought in fewer words, and just as clearly, if we say

The **evening** star shone brightly last night.

In which sentence the word **evening** modifies the noun **star**; and therefore fills the office of an *adjective*.

In the same way, instead of saying

A cup that is made of silver,

we can say

A silver cup.

Instead of

The dew that lies on the grass in the morning,

we can say

The morning dew.

Other examples of nouns used as adjectives are seen in—A **garden** rake, a **hardware** store, a **Toronto** firm, **June** frosts, **Manitoba** wheat, an **iron** plough, etc.

3. We see from these examples (and you can easily think of many others), that nouns are frequently used as adjectives. We cannot, therefore, be sure that a word that looks like a noun is really one, until we have looked into it, and found out the office that it fills in the sentence.

4. We shall see, by and by, that in many cases nouns that were at first used separately in this way—one to modify the other—have afterwards grown so completely together that all thought of their having, at one time, been separate words is forgotten. Thus,

Horseshoe, rainbow, inkstand, railway, penknife.

Exercise 52.—In the following sentences say how the words in italics are used:—

1. The *morning* stars sang together. 2. We use *steel* pens; our grandfathers used *goose* quills. 3. Our *pear* tree has not a single *pear* on it. 4. In the *country* you must expect *country* customs. 5. *India* rubber does not come from *India*. 6. *Gold* watches are not made entirely of *gold*. 7. The *county* council met last week at the *county* town. 8. The contents of the *table* drawer were thrown under the *table*. 9. A *board* floor is much warmer than a *brick* floor. 10. An *iron* kettle will last longer than a *tin* kettle. 11. On our farm we do not grow *garden* peas, but *field* peas only.

Exercise 53.—Where, in the above sentences, a noun is used as an adjective, express its meaning in other words.

5. **Nouns as Verbs.**—Again, if we are not careful to notice the way in which words are used, we may think that the words **harness**, **milk**, **oil**, are *nouns* in such sentences as these:—

We **harness** the horse. We **milk** the cow.

We **oil** the machine.

But a moment's consideration will show us that they make assertions about the subject **we**, and are therefore *verbs*; and that the sentences are short ways of saying

We **put** the harness on the horse.

We **take** milk from the cow.

We **apply** oil to the machine.

Exercise 54.—Mention the part of speech of each of the words in italics:—

1. I sometimes *butter* my bread on both sides. 2. We *sugar* our coffee with maple *sugar*. 3. Some tribes *ink* their bodies with a kind of *ink* obtained from plants. 4. *Hand* me that paper that you have in your *hand*. 5. If you *water* the plants do it with rain *water*. 6. We *pump* water to the top of the house by means of a force *pump*. 7. When you all *toe* the mark the line will be straight. 8. Some silly women *powder* their faces. 9. *Saddle* me the pony. 10. If you *iron* that lace with so hot an *iron* you will scorch it.

6. Different values of Preposition-phrases.—It was mentioned in par. 4, Lesson XIII., that we are sometimes obliged to use preposition-phrases because we have no adverb or adjective that will express the same sense. Frequently, however, we have both ways at command. Thus, we may say

ADJECTIVE.		PREPOSITION-PHRASE.	
An afflicted person,	or	A person in affliction.	
The child was barefoot,	“	The child was without shoes or stockings.	
ADVERB.		PREPOSITION PHRASE.	
Here,	“	In this place.	
Very wisely,	“	{ With great wisdom, or	
		{ In a very wise manner.	
Somewhat courageously,	“	With some courage.	

Exercise 55.—Point out the phrases in the following sentences; tell their kinds, and show what words they modify. When possible change them into adjectives or adverbs as the case may be:—

1. He called in a loud manner. 2. From which place they fled in all haste. 3. We should do our duty at all times. 4. The people of Holland are called Dutch. 5. A drive for carriages led up to the mansion. 6. She began in a very solemn manner. 7. The boy was by nature timid and generous. 8. The storm raged with fury. 9. That person in the corner is my uncle. 10. In an instant all was silence. 11. It is hard to endure a winter in high latitudes. 12. That animal with a long neck is a giraffe. 13. He set out with some eagerness.

7. From what has been said in this lesson, it will be seen that the same word may be used as more than one part of speech; and that in order to know what part of speech a word really is, we must know the office that it fills in the sentence.

LESSON XVII.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF SENTENCES.

1. "The complete thought expressed in words," which we call a sentence, most commonly takes a form which **asserts** that something is true. Such sentences, for this reason, are called **ASSERTIVE SENTENCES**.

DEFINITION.—*An assertive sentence is one that is used in asserting or making a statement.*

In an assertive sentence we may either assert that something is a fact; as

He went to town yesterday;

or assert that something is not a fact; as

He did not go to town to-day.

For distinction the former is called an **affirmative-assertive sentence**, and the latter a **negative-assertive sentence**.

2. But the speaker, instead of stating something he knows, may wish to express a desire to know something. In this case, of course, he could say

I desire—I wish—I would like—to know whether the
train has left, whether my friend is here.

But it is more usual to change the order of the words in the sentence by putting the subject after the verb: thus,

Has the train left? Is my friend here?

A sentence of this sort is called an **INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE**.

DEFINITION.—*An interrogative sentence is one that is used in asking a question.*

It is the business of some pronouns and adverbs to ask questions; as,

Who comes here? What are you doing? Why does he wait?

When did he arrive?

Such words are called **interrogative pronouns and interrogative adverbs**.

3. Sometimes, too, we wish the person to whom we are speaking, to do something. In this case, as above, we could say

**I desire you to shut the door—to go to bed—
to say nothing about it.**

But we more commonly express ourselves in the form of a command or a desire: thus,

Shut the door. Go to bed. Say nothing about it.

A sentence of this sort is called an **IMPERATIVE SENTENCE**, *i.e.*, a commanding or desiring sentence.

DEFINITION.—*An imperative sentence is one that is used in giving a command.*

Since the speaker can only give a command to the person he is speaking to there is no mistaking the subject of the sentence; it is therefore usually stated in an imperative sentence.

Exercise 56.—Punctuate the following sentences, and classify them, *i.e.*, tell the kind of each:—

1. Blessed are the merciful 2. Do you think so 3. Go and do thou likewise. 4. Aim at perfection in everything. 5. Who gave you the parcel 6. Hasten slowly 7. A favorite has no friends 8. Wast thou made before the hills 9. The voice of the turtle is heard in our land 10. Is India free or do we grind her still.

11. But tell me tell me speak again
Thy soft response renewing;
What makes that ship drive on so fast
What is the ocean doing

Exercise 57.—Make an assertion, ask a question, give a command on each of the following subjects:—

1. The approach of Spring. 2. The departure of Summer. 3. The rolling of the sea. 4. The howling of the winds. 5. The twinkling of the stars. 6. The bright silver moon.

Exercise 58.—Rule your slate into eight columns, one for each part of speech, thus:

Nouns.	Pronouns.	Verbs.	Adjectives.	Adverbs.	Prepositions.	Conjunctions.	Interjections.

and classify, by putting into its proper column, each word in the following exercise:—

Once a little boy found a firefly. It shone so brightly that he caught

it easily. He took it to his home and put it into a bottle. While the room was dark, it gave out a bright light, and the boy thought that he had a beautiful insect. Next day he looked at it, but alas! he saw a little beetle only, whose brightness seemed quite gone.

Exercise 59.—Write out correctly in every particular the following sentences:—

1. mrs stowe the author of uncle toms cabin is the sister of the rev henry ward beccher. 2. gen wolfe after descending the st lawrence by night defeated the french under montcalm at the heights of abraham at Quebec. 3. was not dr ryerson the founder of the school system of ontario. 4. what work are you engaged in. 5. the fox said to the crow what makes ycu so black. 6. i am so happy for my brother has come home from brandon in manitoba. 7. the canadian pacific railway runs thro the north west territory all the way to Coal-Harbor in british columbia. 8. goátisland is just above the falls of niagara. 9. Have you ever seen niagara falls. 10. yes i visited them with my two cousins from port hope on thanksgiving day in october last year. 11. In matters of government champlain was wise prudent and moderate and these qualities gained him the love esteem and confidence of those whom he governed. 12. The preacher said how short is time how long is eternity.

While the
that he had
now a little

following

of the rev
vrence by
raham at
system of
the crow
has come
way runs
columbia.
ever seen
port hope
vernment
ained him
12. The

PART II.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

In Part I. we learned that we express our thoughts in sentences made up of words belonging to one or another of the eight **parts of speech**; and that in order to determine to which part of speech a word belongs, we must know the way it is used in a sentence.

We shall now make a fuller acquaintance with these parts of speech by learning the different classes into which they may be divided.

LESSON XVIII.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

1. **Proper Nouns.**—When any thing is distinguished from all other things by a name of its own, that name is called a **PROPER noun**; *proper* here means *of its own*. Examples are

Wolseley, Toronto, Tray, Bible.

Here the name **Wolseley** distinguishes one man from all other men; **Toronto**, one city from all other cities; **Tray**, one dog from all other dogs; **Bible**, one book from all other books.

REMARK.—By thing is meant any thing we can think about.

2. **Common Nouns.**—But most of our nouns are of another sort. We cannot give a separate name to everything; we there-

fore group things of the same kind together, and make one name do for each of them, using other words along with it to show which individuals are meant. Thus,

one tree, my tree, that tree, the maple tree,

may each refer to a separate thing; but none of them has a name of its own, for the name **tree** belongs not to any one in particular, but to all in common. In this manner, the name **tree** may, by means of suitable adjectives, be made to represent any one or more of the class of things called trees, though it is not the individual name of any one of them.

Nouns that are used in this manner are called **COMMON** nouns, because they are not names peculiar to individuals, but belong in *common* to a number of things.

DEFINITION.—A **proper noun** is a name given to anything to distinguish it from others of the same class.

DEFINITION.—A **common noun** is a name that is common to a whole class; that is, to all things of the same kind.

3. A common noun with a suitable adjective or phrase to describe or limit it may often be used instead of a proper noun. Thus,

The British Queen (Victoria).

The Limestone City (Kingston).

The Queen City of the West (Toronto).

The Father of Waters (Mississippi).

The Key of the Mediterranean (Gibraltar).

Exercise 60.—Write out the following sentences with proper capitals and punctuation marks; underline all the nouns; write *p. n.* over each proper noun, and *c. n.* over each common noun:—

CAUTION.—The first letter of every proper noun must be a capital.

1. England expects that every man this day will do his duty 2. the father sent john into the garden 3. tennyson the poet lives in the isle of wight 4. longfellow wrote poetry and lived at boston, massachusetts 5. sir walter scott was fond of dogs; one of his favorite dogs was called camp 6. i call my dog nip and my pony fly 7. the famous horse of alexander the great was named bucephalus 8. venus is sometimes the morning star and sometimes the evening star 9. the siege of troy lasted ten years. 10. christmas day this year will come on tuesday.

4. Collective Nouns.—Some common nouns denote a *collection* of objects; as for instance,

committee, jury, family, group, herd.

Such nouns are called **COLLECTIVE** common nouns.

5 Abstract Nouns.—Other common nouns denote not objects, but only actions, conditions, or qualities belonging to objects; as,

leaping, whiteness, pity, virtue, manliness.

Nouns of this class are, for the most part, the names of qualities or attributes; they are generally derived (*i.e.*, formed, or made) from adjectives, as **whiteness** and **manliness** from the adjectives **white** and **manly**.

They are called **ABSTRACT** common nouns, from the fact that they are the names of qualities *abstracted* (*i.e.*, withdrawn or separated) from objects, and considered apart from them. Thus, when we speak of the *whiteness* of snow we abstract from the object snow the quality of *being white*, that belongs to it, and consider this quality without thinking of the snow in which it exists.

DEFINITION.—*A collective noun is the name of a collection of objects.*

DEFINITION.—*An abstract noun is the name of an action or a quality thought of apart from the object in which it exists.*

Exercise 61.—Make a list of the nouns in the following sentences; over the collective common nouns write *col. com.*, and over the abstract common nouns write *abs. com.*:—

1. The moon reflects the light of the sun. 2. The purity of the Queen's life has gained her the love and respect of mankind. 3. The committee will meet every evening this week. 4. Sleep, gentle sleep, how have I frightened thee? 5. The army was in great peril until reinforced by the navy. 6. The aged man was thrown on the cold charity of the world. 7. The mob forced the gates of the palace. 8. War is a dire calamity. 9. A sudden trembling seized on all his limbs. 10. Boating, bathing and fishing are healthy exercises.

6. Gender-Nouns.—Another way of classifying nouns rests upon the fact that some nouns indicate the *sex* of the objects signified by them. Thus, in the sentences

The lion roared,
A man laughed,
Boys played,

The lioness growled,
A woman wept,
Girls sang,

the nouns **lion, man, boys**, indicate objects of the *male sex*; while **lioness, woman, girls**, indicate objects of the *female sex*.

Nouns that, in this way, indicate the thing signified by them as male and female, are called **GENDER-NOUNS** (*gender* is an old word that meant *kind, class, or sex*). And those nouns that indicate male objects are called **MASCULINE** nouns, or nouns of the masculine gender (masculine means *of the male sex*); while those that indicate female objects are called **FEMININE** nouns, or nouns of the feminine gender (feminine means *of the female sex*).

All nouns that are not gender-nouns, namely, those that signify objects that are without sex; as,

book, tree, house, sun, window, love, pity;

and nouns which, though they signify objects that have sex, are yet used indifferently for either sex; as,

child, bird, dog, fish, neighbor, parent,

are often called **NEUTER** nouns, or nouns of the neuter gender, (*i.e.*, of *neither* one sex nor the other). But there is no need to say anything about gender in connection with a noun, unless it be a noun that indicates a distinction of sex.

DEFINITION.—A **gender-noun** is one which indicates that the object signified by it is of the male or the female sex.

7. A distinction of sex is indicated by gender-nouns in three different ways:—

FIRST WAY.—By using a masculine gender-noun, and a feminine gender-noun quite different from it: thus,

boy, girl; brother, sister; king, queen; drake, duck;
gander, goose; uncle, aunt.

SECOND WAY.—By using a masculine gender-noun, and a feminine

gender-noun formed from the masculine by making an addition to it: thus,

lion, lioness; heir, heiress; abbot, abbess; baron, baroness;
duke, duchess; master, mistress; hero, heroine.

THIRD WAY.—By using a masculine or a feminine gender-noun (or pronoun) before or after another word: thus,

man-servant, maid-servant; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow;
landlord, landlady; gentleman, gentlewoman;
he-goat, she-goat.

Other examples of the first way are

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Bachelor,	Maid.	Man,	Woman.
Boar,	Sow.	Monk,	Nun.
Bridegroom,	Bride.	Nephew,	Niece.
Buck,	Doe.	Papa,	Mamma.
Cock,	Hen.	Ram,	Ewe.
Dog,	Bitch.	Son,	Daughter.
Earl,	Countess.	Swain,	Nymph.
Father,	Mother.	Stag,	Hind.
Horse,	Mare.	Youth,	Damsel.
Husband,	Wife.	Wizard,	Witch.

Other examples of the second way are

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Actor,	Actress.	Murderer,	Murderess.
Count,	Countess.	Priest,	Priestess.
Deacon,	Deaconess.	Prince,	Princess.
Emperor,	Empress.	Prophet,	Prophetess.
Hunter,	Huntress.	Songster,	Songstress.
Jew,	Jewess.	Sorcerer,	Sorceress.
Lad,	Lass (<i>i.e.</i> , Ladess).	Tiger,	Tigress.
Marquis,	Marchioness.	Viscount,	Viscountess.

8. A few nouns taken from foreign languages have, in English, their foreign feminines. The following are the most common:—

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Beau,	Belle.	Sultan,	Sultana.
Sir,	Madam.	Czar,	Czarina.
Testator,	Testatrix.	Signor,	Signora.
Executor,	Executrix.	Julius,	Julia.

Exercise 62.—Head two columns—*Masculine* and *Feminine*—as in the above lists, and put each of the following words into its proper column; then write opposite to it its masculine or its feminine, as the case may require:—

1. Aunt, doe, horse, wife, maid, cock, hart, queen, earl, duck, lady, wizard. 2. Actress, duke, prince, lass, abbess, priest, mistress, marquis, sorcerer, count, deaconess, emperor, hunter, viscount. 3. Murderer, prophet, son, bridegroom, woman, mother, goose, ewe, nephew, son, stag, jew, widow, poet, mayor, lord, friar, executor, beau, madam, bullock,

bull, testatrix, patron, giant, founder, sultan, mamma, administrator, heroine, czar, peacock.

Exercise 63.—In the following sentences, change the masculine nouns into the feminine, and the feminine into the masculine, and make such other changes as may be necessary:—

1. It was not long before the author was introduced to the baron, who, in turn, introduced him to the emperor. 2. The earl asked his man-servant whether his nephew, lord H., had called. 3. The czar madly appointed a wizard and murderer as his executor. 4. The actress, who was also a songstress, highly delighted the king and queen, the marchioness, the viscount and the duchess. 5. The belle of the day, and heroine also of the hour, was countess M., sister of the princess who had lately become the bride of a duke. 6. We were informed that the priestess of the temple, who acted as our hostess, was regarded as a prophetess or sorceress, and that she had predicted the speedy arrival of an abbess and some nuns, in company with the sultana, who was foundress of the temple.

9. Simple Nouns.—The foregoing classification of nouns is based upon differences in *meaning*; they are also classified according to differences in *form*. Thus, when a noun cannot be reduced to any simpler form, it is called a **SIMPLE** noun; as

boy, friend, king, book.

10. Derivative Nouns.—When a noun is *derived* from a simple word by putting at the beginning or the end of it a syllable that cannot be used separately in the language, it is called a **DERIVATIVE** noun.

11. The syllable, if put at the beginning, is called a **PREFIX**; *prefix* means *fixed* (or fastened on) *in front*; if put at the end, it is called a **SUFFIX**; *suffix* means *fixed* (or fastened on) *at the end*.

Examples of derivative nouns are

distrust,	formed from trust by the <i>prefix</i>	dis;
unbelief,	“ belief “	un;
nonsense,	“ sense “	non;
boyhood,	“ boy by the <i>suffix</i>	hood;
friendship,	“ friend “	ship;
goodness,	“ good “	ness.

12. Compound Nouns.—And when a noun is *compounded*, i.e., made up of two or more words that may be used separately in the language, it is called a **COMPOUND** noun; as,

sailor-boy, house-top, axe-handle, rainbow, washtub.

13. In compound nouns the first part usually describes the second part, from which it is sometimes separated by a very short line called a *hyphen*; thus, *hall-table*. In many cases, however, frequent use has made us forget that a word is made up of other words, and then the hyphen has been dropped: thus, *copybook*.

CAUTION.—If the word calls up the ideas conveyed by the separate parts of the compound, the hyphen is generally used, as *garden-gate*; if not, it is omitted, as *penknife*.

DEFINITION.—A simple noun is one that cannot be reduced to any simpler form.

DEFINITION.—A derivative noun is one that is derived from a simple word by putting at the beginning or the end of it a syllable that cannot be used separately in the language.

DEFINITION.—A compound noun is one that is made up of two or more words that may be used separately in the language.

Analysis and Parsing.—NOTE TO TEACHER.—The analysis of sentences having been discussed in Part I., it has not been considered necessary to give illustrations or exercises for practice in this subject throughout Part II.; but the teacher should still continue the practice, drawing his exercises from the Reader or other sources. If, as should always be the case, the sentence be analyzed before it be parsed, and a word modified by another be parsed before that other, pupils at this stage will have little difficulty in telling what part of speech any word is. The reasoning-out method of parsing adopted in Part I. may therefore now be used only occasionally. It is advised, however, that throughout Part II. the relation which every word in a sentence bears to some other word or words should be stated as part of the grammatical parsing. The following scheme, which, with slight changes, is suitable for either written or oral parsing, may be used throughout Part II.; the classifications being added as the lessons in this Part are mastered.

Sentence.—*She walked about in a sad reverie apparently unconscious of danger.*

	WORD.	RELATION.	PART OF SPEECH.
Model.—	She	walked	pronoun.
	unconscious	she	adjective.
	apparently	unconscious	adverb.
	of	unconscious of danger	preposition.
	danger	of	noun, common, abstract.
	walked	she	verb.
	about	walked	adverb.
	in	walked in reverie	preposition.
	a	reverie	adjective.
	sad	"	"
	reverie	in	noun, common, abstract.

Exercise 64.—Write a summary of what has been said about the classification of nouns.

Exercise 65.—I. Compose sixteen sentences: (i.) four with a proper noun as subject; (ii.) four with a proper noun as object; (iii.) four with a common noun as subject; (iv.) four with a common noun as object.

II. Substitute proper nouns for the following:—

1. The queen city of the west. 2. The home of the just. 3. The prime minister of our country. 4. The river that flows from the great lakes. 5. The prairie province. 6. The creator of the universe. 7. The mistress of the seas. 8. The land of brown heath and shaggy wood. 9. The king of dramatists. 10. The land of the shamrock. 11. The hero of Waterloo. 12. The key of the Mediterranean.

III. Substitute common nouns with an adjective, or adjective-phrase, for the following:—

Ottawa, Victoria, Shakespeare, Ontario, Dr. Egerton Ryerson.

IV. Substitute common nouns for the following:—

1. Earth's white mantle. 2. The vale of tears. 3. The staff of life. 4. The king of the forest. 5. The ship of the desert. 6. The root of all evil. 7. The antlered monarch of the glen. 8. The sleep that knows no waking.

V. Write down twelve simple, twelve derivative, and twelve compound nouns, and then use some of these in making sentences.

LESSON XIX.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

1. Transitive Verbs.—One method of classifying verbs rests upon the distinction that was pointed out in Lesson XII., where it was shown that “the assertion made by some verbs is complete in itself,” and that the assertion made by other verbs is not complete until the object is mentioned upon which the action denoted by the verb is exerted (par. 3, Lesson XII.)

Verbs which require to be thus completed are called **TRANSITIVE** verbs. The word *transitive* means *passing over*; and these verbs

are so called because the action they denote is looked upon as "passing over" from the subject to the thing acted upon, which, as we have seen, is called the object. Thus, in the sentence

The cat caught a mouse,

the action of catching is looked upon as passing from the subject **cat** to the object **mouse**. In the sentence

I see them,

the action of seeing passes from me to the things for which the pronoun **them** stands.

2. Intransitive Verbs.—Verbs which do not require to be completed in this way, because they do not express an action which passes over to an object, are called **INTRANSITIVE** verbs. *Intransitive* means *not passing over*. Examples are

I walk. He stands. We rejoice. You weep.

DEFINITION.—A **transitive verb** is one that does not make a complete assertion without an object.

DEFINITION.—An **intransitive verb** is one that makes a complete assertion without an object.

Exercise 66.—Complete by an object, when possible, the following verbs, and say whether they are transitive or intransitive:—

1. The moon shines. 2. I called. 3. A man fell. 4. She sang. 5. Who came? 6. The mob shouted. 7. He walked. 8. We heard. 9. They laughed. 10. The ship sank. 11. The boys began. 12. A spark burnt. 13. Snow melts. 14. The earth shook. 15. I knew.

Exercise 67.—Attach to the following subjects a suitable transitive verb and an object, and qualify your object by an adjective-word or a preposition-phrase:—

Model.—*The sun melts the snow upon the hillside.*

1. The sun —. 2. The traveller —. 3. Our gallant forces —. 4. The enemy —. 5. The kind-hearted boy —. 6. My sister —. 7. The architect —; and the contractor —. 8. The sportsman —; and his retriever —. 9. The artist —; and my uncle —. 10. A farmer —, and then he —. 11. We —. 12. They —.

Exercise 68.—Errors for Correction.—Point out and correct all errors in the following:—

1. Was you at the concert last night, me and Jennie was there 2. Has the school-children *came* out yet? 3. Where was you last night? 4. James has went home, I seen him go. 5. A crowd of boys were standing by and I didn't like to 6. This game is our's, the next may be yours. 7. It is the best situation that can be *got*. 8. Is the sums right that you and me *done*? 9. I have two brother in laws 10. Don't forget to *fetch* them books with you when you come. 11. We arrived about the middle of the day in Toronto. 12. I and Addie was walking down the street, when we seen Lizzie who was crying awful because she hadn't passed the examination.

LESSON XX.

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

1. **Personal Pronouns.**—In Lesson VIII., Part I., we found that different pronouns are used according as they stand for the speaker, for the person spoken to, or for the person or the thing spoken of. Thus **I** always indicates the person speaking; **you**, the person or persons spoken to; **he, she, it**, the person or the thing spoken of.

This difference in the form of the pronouns is called a difference of **PERSON**; and, to distinguish them from one another, we call **I** the pronoun of the **FIRST PERSON**; **you**, the pronoun of the **SECOND PERSON**; and **he, she, it**, pronouns of the **THIRD PERSON**.

The pronouns that, by their form, distinguish the person speaking, or the **FIRST PERSON**, from the person or persons spoken to, or the **SECOND PERSON**, are especially called **PERSONAL** pronouns.

2. There are but few personal pronouns: here is the entire list of those that can be used as subject of a sentence, or as object of a verb or of a preposition:—

FIRST PERSON.

Subject.—**I, we,**
Object.—**Me, us,**

SECOND PERSON.

(**thou**), **you.**
(**thee**), **you.**

DEFINITION.—**Personal pronouns** are those which, by their form, distinguish the person speaking from the person or persons spoken to.

3. Demonstrative Pronouns.—The pronouns of the third person, viz., **he, she, it**, that stand for a person or a thing spoken of, are often called the *personal* pronouns of the third person. But these pronouns are more correctly called **DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS OF THE THIRD PERSON**. (*Demonstrative* means *pointing out, showing, calling attention to.*) For when we speak of an object as **he, she** or **it**, we point it out just as when we speak of it as **this man, this woman, this thing**.

The Demonstrative Pronouns of the Third Person that can be used as subject of a sentence, or as object of a transitive verb or of a preposition, are the following:

Subject.—**He, she, it, they.**

Object.—**Him, her, it, them.**

4. Again, when we wish to call attention to anything near, we say **this**, and if there are more than one thing, **these**; if the thing is at a distance, we say **that**, and if there are more than one thing, **those**. Thus,

This is the gate, and **that** is the door.

These are flowers; **those** are weeds.

And because the words, **this, that, these, those**, thus point out the thing spoken of, they also are called **DEMONSTRATIVE** pronouns.

5. **This, that, these, those**, are often followed by a noun which they modify; they are then, of course, adjectives, and are called **demonstrative** adjectives. Examples are

Have you seen **this** picture—those pictures?

6. Because the words **this** and **these** refer to something near, we use them to refer to something *last mentioned*; and because **that** and **those** refer to something farther off, we use them to refer to something *first mentioned*. Thus,

Some place their bliss in action, some in ease,

Those call it pleasure, and contentment **these**.

Hence, instead of **this** and **these** we sometimes say *the latter*; and instead of **that** and **those**, *the former*.

DEFINITION.—**Demonstrative pronouns** are those which point out or call attention to the objects for which they stand.

Exercise 69.—In the following exercise, mention the personal pronouns, and the demonstrative pronouns of the third person, and say whether they are used as subject or as object. Mention also the other demonstrative pronouns and the demonstrative adjectives:—

1. We went our way, but they stayed. 2. She was lost in the snow. 3. He gave me this apple, and I shall eat it. 4. You were late that morning. 5. This belongs to Jane and that to Martha. 6. I saw him do it this very day. 7. She told us that a friend had assisted her. 8. I requested Mary to help her, but she paid no attention to me. 9. Those apples are not ripe; do not eat them, they will injure you. 10. Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade.

7. Interrogative Pronouns.—We often ask questions by using the pronouns **who**, **which**, **what**: thus,

Who comes here? **Which** would you like?

What does he want?

These are therefore called **INTERROGATIVE** pronouns (*i.e.*, *enquiring* or *question-asking* pronouns). Their place, as the above examples show, is as near as possible to the beginning of the sentence.

Which and **what** (but not **who**) are often followed by a noun which they modify: thus,

Which lesson have you learned? **What money** have you?

They are then adjectives, and are called **interrogative** adjectives.

DEFINITION.—*An interrogative pronoun is one that is used in asking a question.*

8. Relative Pronouns.—The words **who**, **which**, **what** (which are called interrogative pronouns when they ask a question), and the word **that** (which is called a demonstrative when it points out an object), are used for another purpose than to ask a question or point out an object; as when we say

The man **who** was hurt is dead.

We, **who** escaped, were much alarmed.

The money **which** you found belongs to me.

Tell me **what** he said.

The book **that** I was reading has been taken away.

In these sentences **who**, **which** and **what** are not used to ask a

question, nor does **that** point out an object; they are therefore not interrogative or demonstrative pronouns; but they are used to relate, that is, to carry back, the thought to a noun or another pronoun in the same sentence. Thus, in the foregoing examples, the first **who** relates to the noun **man**, the second **who** to the pronoun **we**, **which** to **money**, and **that** to **book**.

When **who**, **which**, **what** and **that** are thus used to *relate* to a noun or another pronoun, they are called **RELATIVE** pronouns; and the word to which they relate is called the **ANTECEDENT** of the relative, because it generally *goes before* it. *Antecedent* means *something that goes before*: see examples.

9. Let it be noticed, in the foregoing examples, that each relative pronoun introduces a clause which has a subject and predicate of its own, and that it joins this clause to its antecedent by way of a description or limitation of it: i.e., to serve as an adjective to it: thus, in

The man who was hurt is dead,

the relative **who** introduces and joins the clause **who was hurt** to **man**—the antecedent of the relative, to tell what man is dead. Because the relative pronouns *join* clauses in this way to their antecedents, they are often, and more correctly, called **CONJUNCTIVE** pronouns.

10. **Who**, when relative, just as when interrogative, is used only of persons; **which** is used when not persons but other creatures or things are meant: thus

The man }
" woman } **who** etc.

The horse }
" house } **which** etc.

That may be used instead of either **who** or **which**, and (like **who** or **which**) may refer to one or more than one.

What differs from the other relatives in having no antecedent expressed in the sentence. It is equivalent to **that which** (that demonstrative, and which relative). Thus,

I know **what** (that which) he will say.

DEFINITION.—A relative pronoun is one that relates to an antecedent, and that joins to it a clause by way of describing or limiting it.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—It is not essential, at this stage, to keep before young pupils the difference between a clause that *limits* and one that *describes*. If, however, the teacher chooses to do so, he may show that a clause *limits* when it distinguishes its antecedent from all other objects of the same name: thus, **The soldier who was wounded has recovered**; and that a clause *describes* when it does not do this: thus, **Toronto, which is the capital of Ontario, is in York County**. Here, of course, as elsewhere in the book, the minuteness of the matter taken up must depend upon the intelligence of the class.

Exercise 70.—Write out to the teacher's dictation the following exercise; over the interrogative pronouns write *int. pr.*, and over the relative pronouns, *rel. pr.*; and link each relative pronoun to its antecedent by a line:—

1. I met the man who was bringing your message. 2. What did he say? 3. Which way did my brother go? 4. The time that remained was well employed. 5. Have you found the pencil which you lost? 6. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown. 7. What is your grade in the army? 8. Fools, who came to scoff, remained to pray. 9. I promise to do what you require. 10. Which is the way to Kalouga? 11. Who would have believed it? 12. What are those queer-looking things yonder? 13. It was the schooner Hesperus that sailed the wintry sea. 14. "'Tis some poor fellow's skull," said he, "who fell in the great victory."

11. Indefinite Pronouns.—There are pronouns of yet another class, which, because they do not stand for any particular or *definite* persons or things, are called **INDEFINITE** pronouns. Thus, in the sentence

All are here,

all means every one of the separate objects that make up some whole, but what these objects are is not stated or defined. Hence, **all** is an indefinite pronoun.

Among the indefinite pronouns are

1. **Each, either, and neither**, which refer to objects taken separately or *distributed*, and which, for this reason, are called **DISTRIBUTIVES**.

2. **Some, any, many, few, all, both, one, none, aught, naught, such, other, and another**, which have reference to number or to quantity.

3. Words made by joining **some, any, every** and **no** to the words **one, thing, and body**.

Almost all the words in 1 and 2 may be followed by the nouns to which they refer; they are then, of course, **indefinite adjectives**.

DEFINITION.—*An indefinite pronoun is one that does not refer to any particular person or thing.*

Exercise 71.—Write a summary of what has been said about the classification of pronouns.

Exercise 72.—Point out the pronouns in the following exercise, and say to what class each belongs, and why. Point out, also, any demonstrative, interrogative, or indefinite adjectives that occur:—

1. We saw that they had lost their way. 2. I went to him and to her, and told them that we would come to see them, if they were at leisure to receive us. 3. Who broke the window? 4. The boy who is honest and truthful is trusted. 5. Bless them that curse you. 6. He says what he thinks. 7. What book are you reading? 8. What would you do in such a case? 9. Which do you like best, this picture or that? 10. Short is the bliss that sin bestows. 11. He is the free man whom the truth makes free. 12. Here are some raisins, will you take a few? 13. That life is long which answers life's great end. 14. The one became a soldier, the other a lawyer. 15. Somebody has been here, but I do not miss anything. 16. They who die in a just cause never fail. 17. Which situation would you prefer? I would like one as well as the other, and would take either if it were offered me. 18. Few, few shall part where many meet. 19. The boy that came last into that class will soon be first boy in it. 20. Do you know anyone in this town?

21. Come one, come all! this rock shall fly
From its firm base as soon as I.

22. Fear nought, nay, that I need not say,
But doubt not aught from mine array.

Exercise 73.—i. Compose seven sentences, using as subjects the following pronouns—*I, we, you, he, she, it, they*.

ii. Compose seven sentences, using as objects either of transitive verbs or of prepositions, the following pronouns—*me, us, you, him, her, it, them*.

iii. Compose four sentences, using the demonstrative pronouns either as subjects or as objects.

iv. Compose three interrogative sentences, using as subjects—*who, which, what*.

v. Compose, or quote, four sentences, using as connectives the relative pronouns—*who, which, what, that*.

vi. Compose, or quote, sentences containing as subjects or as objects the following indefinite pronouns—*any, some, few, many, all, such, either, both, neither, another*.

LESSON XXI.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Qualifying Adjectives.—It was shown (par. 4, Lesson IX.) that most adjectives modify nouns by pointing out some **quality** or another in the objects signified by the nouns; as,

A red rose. The fertile field. A clever boy.

Such adjectives are called **QUALIFYING** adjectives.

DEFINITION.—**Qualifying adjectives** are those that point out some quality in the objects signified by the nouns which they modify.

2. Quantifying Adjectives.—It was shown also in the same lesson, that some few adjectives modify nouns by pointing out, not **qualities** of the objects signified by the nouns, but the **quantity** or the **number** of the objects; as,

There was much grass in the place. I have little money.

Three men were present. The third man was the prisoner. We are seven.

Such adjectives are called **QUANTIFYING** adjectives.

DEFINITION.—**Quantifying adjectives** are those that point out the quantity or the number of the objects signified by the nouns which they modify.

3. Some quantifying adjectives point out the exact number of objects: thus,

one, two, three, four, etc.

To distinguish these from other quantifying adjectives they are called **CARDINAL NUMERALS**—*numerals* because they have to do with *number*, and *cardinal* because they are the *chief words* to signify number, for cardinal, as used here, means *chief*, *most important*.

Others (derived for the most part from the cardinals by adding *th*) point out the *order* of objects in a series: thus,

first, second, third, fourth, fifth, etc.

The latter are called **ORDINAL NUMERALS**.

4. Pronominal Adjectives.—There are other adjectives still which either are derived from pronouns, or are identical with them, and which, as we saw in the last lesson, are called pronouns when used without, and in place of, nouns ; and adjectives, when used with nouns which they modify.

Such adjectives are called PRONOMINAL adjectives.

DEFINITION.—**Pronominal adjectives** are those that are called pronouns when used without, and in place of, nouns, and that are called adjectives when used with nouns.

5. Of pronominal adjectives there are five kinds, corresponding to the five classes of pronouns given in last lesson.

1. Possessive adjectives. These are forms of the personal pronouns, and of the demonstrative pronouns of the third person, used adjectively, (i.e., as modifiers of nouns expressed or understood), to denote *possession*; for each of these pronouns has, corresponding to it, a form to denote possession, and most of them have two such forms: thus,

	PERS. PRONOUNS.	POSSESSIVE FORM.
1st person singular	I,	my or mine.
2nd " "	thou,	thy or thine.
1st " plural	we,	our or ours.
2nd " "	you,	your or yours.
	DEM. PRONOUNS.	POSSESSIVE FORM.
3rd person singular	{ he, she, it,	his. her or hers. its.
3rd " plural	they,	their or theirs.

The second forms, *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, are used when no noun follows: thus,

Your father and mine were present. This book is mine ; that is yours.

2. Demonstrative adjectives. These are *this, these; that, those; yon, yonder; the; when followed by a noun.* Examples are

This animal. Those sad days. Yon or yonder bright clouds.
The White Ship.

3. Interrogative adjectives. These are *which* and *what* when used *interrogatively* and *followed by a noun.* Examples are

Which road must I take? What offence have you given?

REMARK.—The interrogative pronoun, *who*, is not used adjectively, i.e., with a noun.

4. Relative adjectives. These are the same words, *which* and *what*, when used *relatively* and followed by a noun. Examples are

I know *what* book (*i.e.*, the book in general *which*) you mean.

I know *which* book (*i.e.*, the book in particular *which*) you mean.

5. Indefinite adjectives. These are those words which, when used without a noun, we called indefinite pronouns. A list of them was given in par. 11, of the last lesson.

REMARK.—Many indefinite adjectives, since they have reference to number or quantity, may, with equal propriety, be put in the class of quantifying adjectives: thus,

Several kinds. Many tribes. Some persons, etc.

6. Articles.—An or a, called the *indefinite* article, and the, called the *definite* article, are in reality adjective-words, since they are always used along with nouns to limit them: thus,

An officer. A street. The letter. The letters.

An or a is formed from the numeral adjective *one*. It can be used before nouns in the singular only, and then *an* is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound: see examples.

The is connected both in form and in meaning with the demonstrative adjective *that*. It can be used before nouns in the singular or the plural: see examples.

Exercise 74.—Write a summary of what has been said about the classification of adjectives.

Exercise 75.—Arrange in three columns, headed *Qualifying*, *Quantifying*, and *Pronominal*, the adjectives found in the following sentences; and further distinguish the pronominal adjectives by writing after them—*poss.*, *dem.*, *inter.*, *rel.*, or *indef.*, as the case may be:—

1. That kind boy helped the old man with his heavy load. 2. The rapid train soon completed its long journey. 3. The first fresh dawn awoke us from our drowsy sleep. 4. Have you any money? I have a little. I have three or four dollars. 5. Many men have many minds. 6. All clever boys are not good boys. 7. Each boy must do his best. 8. Far other aims his heart had learned to prize. 9. The whole affair was disgraceful. 10. Every girl in the class heard him make that mistake. 11. Great results from little causes spring. 12. What account can you give of the sad affair. 13. Which way did he go? 14. Every fourth year is called Leap-year. 15. Two heads are better than one. 16. Every tenth man was shot. 17. Who are those people in yon carriage? 18. All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy. 19. Drunkenness is the cause of many deaths and much misery.

20. The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old,

Exercise 76.—Express otherwise the sense of the words in *italics*, and then decide whether the change improves the sentence or not.

CAUTION.—If two expressions are equally strong and clear, and sound equally well, the shorter one is generally to be preferred.

Model.—1. The Tower was once
a residence *of the kings*.

2. We began our voyage
towards home.

1. The Tower was once a *royal*
residence.

2. We began our *homeward* voy-
age.

1. The *mountain* tops are covered with snow. 2. She wore a crown of *gold* and a robe of *lace*. 3. There he stood with eyes of *flame* and with a soul of *fire*. 4. He was a boy of *great industry*. 5. This village was once *inhabited by Indians*. 6. The sea is always in a state of *unrest*. 7. Bears are white in *lands near the pole*. 8. Gates of *brass* richly carved forbade our entrance. 9. *The inhabitants of Canada* can never be slaves. 10. Lord Dufferin was a *very sagacious* governor. 11. The poor widow was *much afflicted* owing to the death of her only son. 12. We sat out of doors with *nothing on our heads*. 13. The speaker touched all hearts, for his words were full of *vigor and passion*. 14. The druids of old offered sacrifices of *men*.

LESSON XXII.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

1. In Lesson XI. it was shown that adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Most adverbs modify verbs; and they do so by pointing out either **where**, **when**, **how**, etc., the action expressed by the verb took place: thus,

Afterwards we sailed along pleasantly.

Other adverbs modify by pointing out **extent** or **degree**: thus,

We **greatly** admired the scene.

The wounded man is **nearly** well.

Others, again, are used in asking **questions**: thus,

When did you arrive?

2. Adverbs may, therefore, be roughly divided into

i. Adverbs of PLACE and MOTION ; as,

there, above, out ; forward, hence, back.

ii. Adverbs of TIME and SUCCESSION ; as,

then, seldom, never ; once, next, thirdly.

iii. Adverbs of MANNER and QUALITY ; as,

thus, so, well ; carefully, badly, truly.

iv. Adverbs of MEASURE and DEGREE ; as,

much, more, all ; quite, greatly, very.

It is adverbs of the 2nd and 4th classes (the latter chiefly) that are mostly used to modify adjectives or other adverbs.

3. When the adverbs **when, where, whence, how, why, wherefore**, are used in asking questions, they are called INTERROGATIVE adverbs, and may be classed as INTERROGATIVE adverbs of TIME, PLACE, MANNER, and so on.

Exercise 77.—Arrange in five columns, properly headed, the adverbs found in the following exercise ; write *vb.* after such as modify verbs ; *adj.* after such as modify adjectives ; and *adv.* after such as modify adverbs :—

1. The poor are always amongst us. 2. He recently came back. 3. I lost my thimble yesterday, and found it to-day. 4. She bore her sufferings very patiently. 5. I often meet your friend. 6. This is good enough. 7. She is seldom punctual. 8. I seldom saw such a storm ; it raged furiously. 9. We were greatly in danger. 10. The idle boy is generally mischievous. 11. Flowers soon fade. 12. My canary sings beautifully. 13. I never before saw such bad writing. 14. You are greatly to blame, for you are old enough to know better. 15. I was very sorry to find my friend so ill ; he is much better to-day. 16. Where did you see her ?

Exercise 78.—Express otherwise the sense of the words in italics, and decide whether the change improves the sentence or not.

Model.—We awaited the dawn
with great anxiety.

We awaited the dawn *very*
anxiously.

1. He began to address us in a *very solemn manner*. 2. Each army fought *desperately*. 3. We watched the retreating figure in *silence*. 4. You must proceed *very carefully*. 5. Will you go to *that place of your own accord* ? 6. *After a little while* the mistress of the house entered. 7. Beehives were *originally* made of straw. 8. *With some courage* our dogs advanced to the attack. 9. The travellers were of *necessity* delayed on their way towards home. 10. He acted his part *with justice, with skill, and without fear*. 11. If you act in *such an insolent manner*, you must take the consequences. 12. God is *in all places and at all times* present with us.

Exercise 79.—Errors for Correction.—Point out and correct all the faults you can find in the following sentences:—

1. You done that very bad. 2. She always appears very amiably. 3. Last night was excessive cold. 4. My hair wants cutting badly. 5. Lord Dufferin was exceeding popular in Canada. 6. If you act so bad, you'll be *apt* to be punished. 7. That velvet on her dress looks very prettily, more prettily than silk. 8. They were real glad when they seen us. 9. The speaker began very solemn, and the audience looked so seriously. 10. By working hard, they made near forty dollars a month. 11. If you wish to be trusted, you must *stick* firm to your principles. 12. The strangers were *very* perplexed, cause they were *stared at*.

LESSON XXIII.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

1. Prepositions.—As there are comparatively few prepositions in the language to indicate a great many relations, each of them has many uses, so that prepositions cannot be divided into such distinct classes as some of the other parts of speech. Some of them, however, when used in a certain way can be divided off into classes. Thus, some denote **rest in a place**; as,

in, at, on, above, below, beside.

Others, again, denote **motion**; as,

into, from, toward, along, up, down.

Exercise 80.—Distinguish between the meanings of the same prepositions in the following sentences or phrases:—

1. **By.** He sat by me. By skill and daring he overcame the difficulty. We judge of the future by the past. He pulled up the plant by the roots.

2. **Of.** The palace of the king. The rays of the sun. I will think of it. A ring of gold.

3. **Above.** He kept his head above water. The hill is above a thousand feet high. He thinks himself above his former companions. Such treatment was above any deserts.

4. **From.** From nothing, nothing can come. From anger to murder is often but a short step.

5. **For.** He couldn't go, so I went for him. This mixture is excellent for colds. Last winter was famous for high winds. We did it for fun.

6. **With.** I saw it with my eyes as I was going along with my father.

Exercise 81.—Point out the difference between these pairs of sentences:—

1. The bird flies in the house,—into the house. 2. The bird flies over the house,—above the house. 3. The bird flew after me,—behind me.
4. The bird flew between us,—among us.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—Though no classification according to meaning is given of the prepositions, the teacher is recommended to accustom his pupils to explain the use of each preposition in a sentence; see Exercises 80 and 81. The practice will lead to the careful use of these words, and will also enable the pupil to distinguish between such words as *by* and *with*; *in* and *into*; *at* and *to*; *over* and *above*; *between* and *among*; *after* and *behind*, etc.

2. Interjections.—We may classify interjections according to the emotion which each is designed to express: for instance, into interjections expressing joy; as, **Hurrah!** or suffering; as, **Oh dear!** or contempt; as, **Pshaw!** or calling; as, **Hello!** or hushing; as, **Hush!**

But such classification would not be reliable, because the same interjection often expresses different emotions, according to the tone of voice in which it is uttered: thus **Oh!** may denote glad surprise, or fright, or suffering.

Interjections may also be classified into *real* interjections, that is, those that are never used but as interjections; as, **Ah!** **Pshaw!** **Hello!** etc., and *occasional* interjections, that is, those that are formed by sometimes using other parts of speech in an interjectional manner; as, **Indeed!** **What!** **Hark!** **Well done!** **Dear me!** etc. These last are, properly speaking, not interjections, but fragments of sentences, which we are too hurried or too excited to utter in full. Thus,

Indeed! means—Is this **indeed** the case?

Well done! means—You (or They) have **well done**.

Exercise 82.—Combine into *one simple sentence* each series of simple sentences given on the following page.

Model.—*Simple sentences.*—The tree was struck. It was an oak tree. The tree was old. It was a fine tree. It grew in the park. The lightning struck it. It was night when it was struck. The night was Wednesday. It was 12 o'clock when it was struck.

Combined into one simple sentence.—The fine old oak tree in the park was struck by lightning at 12 o'clock on Wednesday night.

Here, the thoughts contained in several of the simple sentences have been expressed as modifiers of either the subject or the predicate of one simple sentence.

1. The boy fell. The boy was little. It was a ditch he fell into. The ditch was dry. It was this morning that he fell in.

2. The river overflowed. The river was the Trent. The banks were overflowed. It was in July. It was on the 15th of that month. On both sides it was overflowed.

3. A boy came. The boy was pretty. He was little. He was blue-eyed. He had rosy cheeks. It was his mother he came to. The boy had a rabbit. It was a young one. It was white. It was lop-eared. He carried it in his apron.

4. Leonidas died. Leonidas was a king. He was king of Sparta. Three hundred of his countrymen died with him. They died like heroes. It was at Thermopylæ they died. They died to defend their country. They were defending their country against the Persians.

5. Milton was born. He was a poet. He was a great poet. He was an English poet. Breadstreet was the place of his birth. Breadstreet is in Cheapside. Cheapside is in London. He was born in the year 1608.

6. John was a king. John signed. It was a document called Magna Charta that he signed. John was afraid of his barons. He did not care about liberty. He signed it at Runnymede. Runnymede is on the Thames. It is not far from Windsor.

7. The boy wrote. He was a good boy. He wrote a letter. He wrote to his father. He wrote from school. He wrote on his birthday. It was a long letter. He wrote it early in the morning. He wrote it before breakfast.

LESSON XXIV.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Before proceeding to the classification of conjunctions, it is necessary that we should learn something more about the nature of sentences.

1. In Lesson XIV. we found that by means of conjunctions we can put together simple sentences, each having its own subject and predicate, and thus make of them a longer sentence. We found, too, that each of the separate sentences that were joined in this way to make a longer sentence is called a "clause" (par. 5, Lesson XIV). We have now to observe a difference in the nature of these clauses,

If we notice carefully the clauses in the sentences—

The day was fine, and the sun shone brightly ;

Tom goes to school, but he does not learn ;

The watch is on the table, or some one has taken it ;

we see that each *clause*, though joined to another by a conjunction, makes an assertion of its own ; and that in each sentence the assertion made by one clause is independent of the assertion made by the other clause ; that is, neither clause depends on the other for its sense. Indeed, so independent are the clauses one of another, that if we remove the joining words (**and, but, or**) each clause becomes at once a separate, independent assertion. Moreover, it will be seen, that in each longer sentence the assertion made by one clause is as important as the assertion made by the other clause ; in other words, that one clause is equal in rank to the other.

2. Clauses that make sense of themselves, and do not depend on other clauses, are said to be **INDEPENDENT** ; and because one clause is as important as the other, they are said to be **CO-ORDINATE**, that is, *of equal order or rank*. And a sentence made up, like those above, of two or more independent, co-ordinate clauses is called a **COMPOUND** sentence ; *compound* means *placed together*, and in this kind of sentence the clauses are, as it were, placed side by side and loosely tied.

DEFINITION.—A **compound sentence** is one made by joining together two or more independent clauses.

Exercise 83.—Of the following sentences, say which are simple, and which are compound ; divide the compound sentences into their co-ordinate clauses, and mention the conjunctions that join the latter :—

1. He pushed me and I fell. 2. The birds in the nest were sheltered from the rain by the wings of their mother. 3. They had cake, but we had fruit. 4. The girl screamed, yet no help came. 5. The girl screamed at the sight of a snake in the garden. 6. The battle continued, though it was dark. 7. The battle between the Arabs and the French lasted from ten in the morning till eight in the evening. 8. It rained, yet we started. 9. You were gone, else you would have heard. 10. The bird was shot, or some one had struck it,

3. Abbreviated Compound Sentences.—1. We often want to make the same assertion about two or more subjects: thus,

Raisins }
Figs } come from Spain.

We can, of course, throw this into the form of a compound sentence, and say

Raisins come from Spain and figs come from Spain,

but, for brevity, we usually join such subjects together by a conjunction (par. 4, Lesson XIV.), and make one assertion about all: thus,

Raisins and figs come from Spain.

2. Often, too, we require to make two or more assertions about the same subject: thus,

The tide { ebbs.
 { flows.

For a similar reason as before, we join the predicates and say

The tide ebbs and flows.

So, too, we may join two or more predicate adjectives, and assert of the same subject the qualities they express: thus,

They were lovely and pleasant in their lives.

We may also join two preposition-phrases, and modify therewith the same subject or predicate: thus,

The snow on the hillsides and in the valleys began to melt.

He was seen both before and after the battle.

Such sentences are really compound sentences abbreviated; and it is generally possible to treat them as compound sentences by supplying the member or part omitted. It is, moreover, perfectly proper to hold that there are as many sentences (or clauses) as there are verbs (asserting words) in anything we say; nevertheless, *when such sentences are brief and not complicated*, it is generally better to treat them as simple sentences having a compound subject, or predicate, or modifier, as the case may be.

Exercise 84.—Write a summary of what has been said about compound sentences.

Exercise 85.—Say in what respect the following sentences are abbreviated; expand them into co-ordinate clauses by supplying the omitted parts:—

1. Owls and bats fly by night. 2. He came yesterday and went away to-day. 3. Peter went out and wept bitterly. 4. Time and tide wait for no man. 5. Air expands and becomes lighter by heat. 6. On the moun-

tain and in the valleys lies the snow. 7. We obtain heat and light from the sun. 8. The moon rose and dispelled the gloom. 9. He acted with great prudence and courage. 10. Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note. 11. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

12. Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?

13. With a slow and noiseless footstep,
Comes that messenger divine.

4. Analysis of Compound Sentences.—A compound sentence is analyzed by telling the clauses, their relation and connecting words, and then proceeding with each clause in the manner already pointed out for simple sentences. If the compound sentence is abbreviated, the analysis should show in what respects it is abbreviated; or the omitted parts may be supplied in full, and the clauses analyzed as simple sentences.

John went home but I stayed in school.

Model 1.—This is a compound sentence, of which the clauses are—
A. John went home; B. I stayed in school; and these independent clauses are joined by the co-ordinating conjunction *but*; (par. 1, Lesson XXVI.)

Frogs and seals live on land and in water.

Model 2.—This is an abbreviated compound sentence, being abbreviated in having but one predicate for two subjects. Its subject is compound, consisting of the two simple subjects *frogs, seals*, joined by the co-ordinating conjunction *and*. The predicate *live* is modified by a compound adverb-phrase consisting of the two adverb-phrases *on land, in water*. Or, better:

This is a simple sentence; its compound subject is *frogs and seals*; its predicate *live* is modified by the compound adverb-phrase, *on land and in water*.

If the omitted parts are supplied, it is equivalent to the following four simple sentences:—

- A. *Frogs live on land* (and)
- B. *Seals* “ “ ;
- C. *Frogs* “ *in water* (and)
- D. *Seals* “ “

LESSON XXV.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. If we examine such a sentence as

We started when the sun rose,

we easily perceive that the only statement made is **we started**; for the clause **when the sun rose** does nothing more than point out or define the *time* of our starting, just as an adverb would do; it means the same as the adverb-phrase **at sunrise**, and is used as if it were an adverb of time modifying the verb **started**.

So, too, if we say

The bird could not fly because it was wounded,

the second clause here, also, has the value of an adverb modifying **could not fly**, like the adverb-phrase **on account of its wound**.

Such clauses are called **ADVERB-CLAUSES**; and it will be easily seen that they cannot be independent of the other clause in the sentence any more than a simple adverb can be independent of the word it modifies.

2. A clause of this kind cannot make sense without the other clause; and, this being the case, it is evident that the clauses are not co-ordinate, or of equal rank with one another. As compared with each other, one clause, viz.: **we started**, is said to be **PRINCIPAL**, or *of first rank*; and the other, viz.: **when the sun rose**, **SUBORDINATE**, i.e., *of an order or rank below the other*.

3. Again, in the sentence—

We saw that it was a bird,

the subordinate clause—**that it was a bird**—is not adverbial like the preceding; but it serves as object to *complete* the transitive verb **saw** in the principal clause, for it names or defines the thing we saw just as a noun would do.

So, too, if we say

I can tell whether any one has been here,

the subordinate clause—**whether any one has been here**—serves

as object to *complete* the transitive verb **can tell**, for it names the thing I can tell, just as a noun would do.

Again, if we say

That the prisoner is guilty is certain,

the statement is simply that something is certain; and that something is expressed by the dependent clause—**that the prisoner is guilty**. This clause, therefore, has the value of a noun, being equal to—the *guilt* of the prisoner; but, instead of being object of a transitive verb like the clauses above, it serves as subject to the predicate **is certain**.

Clauses that have the value of nouns are called **NOUN-CLAUSES**; and these examples show that, like nouns, they may be used either as the subject or as the object of a verb.

4. Once more, if we say

The man who made that design was clever,

the statement is—the **man was clever**; and these words form the principal clause. The dependent, or subordinate, clause—**who made that design**—merely modifies the *subject* man just as an adjective would do.

So, in the sentence—

I saw the house that was struck by lightning,

the dependent clause—**that was struck by lightning**—modifies, as the adjective **lightning-stricken** would do, the noun **house** which is the *object* of the verb saw.

Clauses that have the value of adjectives are called **ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES**; and these examples show that they may be used to modify a noun in either the subject or the predicate of the principal clause.

Thus we have found that dependent, or subordinate, clauses are of *three kinds*, viz.: **adverb-clauses**, **noun-clauses**, and **adjective-clauses**. We have further seen that they may be used in any part of a sentence where an adverb, a noun, or an adjective may be used.

5. A sentence that is made up, like the foregoing, of one prin-

principal clause, and one or more subordinate clauses, is called a **COMPLEX sentence**. *Complex* means *woven together*, and the name is intended to indicate that its parts are more closely connected than are those of the compound sentence.

6. In the examples so far given, the principal clause of the complex sentence has, for simplicity's sake, had only one dependent clause attached to it; but the following sentence shows that it may have several, and that these may be of different kinds; and that a dependent clause may itself be modified by another dependent clause:—

My friend, who had gone on in advance, hastily returned when he found that the boat which we had expected was not at the landing.

DEFINITION.—*A complex sentence is one made up of a principal clause, and one or more dependent clauses.*

7. The dependent clause will always be joined to the principal clause by *some connecting word*, expressed or understood, but this connecting word is not always a conjunction purely. Some part of the dependent clause may act as connecting word: thus,

The man that was sick is dead.

Here the word **that** is partly a conjunction and partly a pronoun; *i.e.*, it is a conjunction in so far as it joins the clauses together, and a pronoun in so far as it stands for a noun.

Sometimes the connecting word is partly a conjunction and partly an adverb: thus,

The tree lay where it fell.

Here the word **where** is a conjunction in so far as it joins the clauses, and an adverb in so far as it modifies a verb *in its own clause*.

Such joining words perform a double duty, which is indicated by a double name sometimes given to them—**Conjunctive-pronouns** and **Conjunctive-adverbs**; see par. 9, Lesson XX.

Exercise 86.—Write a summary of what has been said about complex sentences:

Exercise 87.—In each of the following complex sentences, 1. Distinguish the principal from the dependent clause; 2. Say of what kind the dependent clause is; 3. Mention the word that connects the clauses, and tell whether it is a conjunction purely, or whether it is also part of the dependent clause:—

1. That the man was tipsy was painfully apparent. 2. That you are bound to go is clear. 3. He says that you are bound to go. 4. I feel

that I am right. 5. They who die in a just cause never fail. 6. That life is long which answers life's great end. 7. I love them that love me. 8. This is the house that Jack built. 9. He started when the news came. 10. Go when duty calls thee. 11. He did as he was told. 12. Why he came did not appear. 13. They also serve who only stand and wait. 14. I will write when I can. 15. You saw how he avoided me. 16. She sat down because she was tired. 17. The book that I bought is on the table. 18. Where he was born cannot now be ascertained. 19. He spends his time as he likes. 20. The city in which he lived was proud of him. 21. I speak of the time when Elizabeth reigned. 22. I gazed until my eyes grew dim. 23. That he is mistaken is certain. 24. How the snake got into the house is a mystery.

Exercise 88.—Go over the above sentences again, and say whether the **noun-clauses** serve as subjects or as objects; say also what words are modified by the **adjective** and **adverb-clauses**.

Analysis of Complex Sentences.—These must first be analyzed as one sentence, taking each *dependent* clause as a single part of speech; then the dependent clauses should be analyzed separately.

Model 1.—*That our guide loses his way frequently is manifest from his actions.*

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| I. Subject, | <i>That our guide loses his way frequently</i> (a noun-clause) |
| III. Predicate, | <i>is manifest</i> |
| IV. Adv. Mod. of Pred., | <i>from his actions.</i> |

Analysis of Noun-Clause.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| I. Subject, | <i>guide.</i> |
| II. Adj. Mod. of Subj., | <i>our.</i> |
| III. Predicate, | <i>loses.</i> |
| IV. Object, | <i>way.</i> |
| V. Adj. Mod. of Obj., | <i>his.</i> |
| VI. Adv. Mod. of Pred., | <i>frequently.</i> |

N.B.—When the noun-clause is itself the subject of the principal clause, the latter cannot, of course, be complete without it, and you cannot separate the complex sentences into two *complete* clauses, each with its own subject and predicate. So, also, when the noun-clause is the object, the complete predicate of the principal clause must include the noun-clause.

Model 2.—*I feel in my heart that I am right.*

Principal clause (A) *I feel in my heart*

Dependent noun-clause (b) (that) *I am right* (object of *feel* in (A).)

Analysis of (A).

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| I. Subject, | <i>I</i> |
| III. Predicate, | <i>feel</i> |
| IV. Object, | noun-clause (b) |
| VI. Adv. Mod. of Pred., | <i>in my heart.</i> |

Analysis of (b).

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| I. Subject, | <i>I</i> |
| III. Predicate, | <i>am right,</i> |

LESSON XXVI.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Now that from the last two lessons we have learned the nature of co-ordinate and subordinate clauses, we can readily understand the classification of conjunctions into co-ordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions. For those conjunctions that join the independent, *co-ordinate* clauses of a *compound* sentence, and that sometimes join phrases or words used in the same way in a sentence (par. 4, Lesson XIV.), are called CO-ORDINATING conjunctions, while those that join a *subordinate* clause to the principal clause of a *complex* sentence are called SUBORDINATING conjunctions. Hence, we have the following

DEFINITION.—*Co-ordinating conjunctions are those that join together phrases or words used in the same way in a sentence, and sentences of equal order or rank to form a compound sentence.*

DEFINITION.—*Subordinating conjunctions are those that join a subordinate or dependent clause to a principal one to form a complex sentence.*

Exercise 89.—Say which of the following sentences are compound, and which complex; also name the kind of conjunctions by which they are joined:—

1. The lion is small, but it possesses great strength. 2. Not only is the game amusing; it is useful also. 3. John Maynard was surrounded by the fire of the burning ship, yet he nobly did his duty. 4. I shall go to Montreal on Monday unless something prevents me. 5. We must be quiet, or the bird will fly away. 6. I like him, though we sometimes disagree. 7. He drank heartily, for he was thirsty. 8. He had left before I arrived. 9. Zaccheus, because he was little of stature, climbed a sycamore tree in order that he might see Jesus. 10. Jesus wrought many miracles, nevertheless the Jews believed not on Him. 11. The girl is more attentive than her brother, consequently she makes more progress. 12. The captain lost his reckoning, hence the ship ran aground. 13. Go indoors, else you will take cold. 14. When Rover is in the house, I am not afraid of robbers. 15. How I managed to lose it, I cannot tell. 16. We pursued that lonely path until night set in. 17. Christ died in order that we might live. 18. We set out again as soon as it had done raining. 19. Large herds of buffaloes once roamed over our Canadian North-West, whereas now one is seldom seen. 20. We must be diligent, else we shall not learn.

Exercise 90.—Taking care to preserve the sense, combine, in as many ways as you can, the simple sentences in each of the following paragraphs, into compound and complex sentences, so as to form continuous narratives.

Model.—*Simple sentences.*—Two friendly goats once met by accident. They met on a very narrow bridge. Neither could possibly go back. One goat knelt down. The other climbed over his back. They thus got over safely.

Combined.—1. Two goats that were friendly to each other once met by accident on a very narrow bridge, where it was not possible to go back. So one goat knelt down, and the other climbed over his back. In this way both got over safely.

2. When two friendly goats once met by accident on a very narrow bridge, and could not possibly go back, one goat knelt down, and the other climbed over his back, and thus they both got over in safety.

3. Once on a very narrow bridge, two goats that were friends met accidentally. As neither could return they both got over safely by one goat kneeling down and allowing the other to climb over his back.

4. Two goats that once met by accident on a very narrow bridge, where it was impossible for either to return, effected a safe crossing by one goat kneeling down and allowing the other to climb over his back. They would not have acted thus if they had not been friendly.

5. Two goats having accidentally met on a bridge that was very narrow, and not being able to return, effected a safe crossing by the one goat kneeling down and the other goat climbing over his back. They did this because they were friendly.

1. A dog stole a piece of meat. He ran off with it. He saw his shadow in some water. The meat in the shadow seemed very large. He dropped the meat in his mouth to seize that in the shadow. He thus lost the meat. It is not wise to grasp the shadow and lose the substance.

2. A hare ran a race. A tortoise ran a race, too. The hare ran fast. The tortoise walked slowly. The hare despised the speed of the tortoise. He ran half the distance. He then lay down to rest. He went to sleep. The tortoise did not rest. It kept on walking. It passed the hare. It won the race.

3. A monkey and a cat lived in the same house. Their master was roasting some chestnuts. The chestnuts were on a hot stove. The monkey wanted the chestnuts. He did not want to burn his paws. He seized the cat. He used her paws to draw off the chestnuts.

4. The squirrel is a funny little animal. It lives in the woods. It runs or leaps from branch to branch and from tree to tree. It lives upon nuts, acorns, fruits and seeds. It lays up stores of these for winter use. It sits up to eat. It holds its food in its fore-paws. With these it nimbly turns its food round and round. It uses its fore-paws as we use our hands.

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PART III.

INFLECTION.

We have now learned to distinguish the Parts of Speech, and the classes into which they are divided. We have next to notice certain changes of form called **INFLECTION**, which some of the parts of speech undergo, for the purpose of indicating differences in their meaning, or differences in the connection in which they are used.

LESSON XXVII.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS TO INDICATE NUMBER.

1. Let us take as examples the little sentences—

The **man** learns.

The **men** learn.

The **horse** runs.

The **horses** run.

I go.

We go.

He was.

They were.

Here it is seen that when we want to speak, not of one **man** alone, but of more than one, we alter the sound of the word (and hence also the spelling), and say **men**.

If we want to speak of more than one **horse** we add an **s**, and say **horses**.

If, instead of myself alone, I speak of a number of persons of

whom I am one, I change **I** to **we**, and say **we**. And in the same way we change **he** to **they**.

Here, then, is a set of changes in the form of nouns and pronouns, made in order to show a difference in the *number* of objects meant, whether a single one or more than one. Hence we call it a change for **NUMBER**, and we say that the words **man, horse, I** and **he** are of the singular number because they denote but one; and that the words **men, horses, we** and **they** are of the plural number because they denote more than one. (*Singular means single, and plural means more than one.*)

2. What is true of these nouns and pronouns is true also of nearly all the rest: we do not use precisely the same word when we mean one and when we mean more than one; that is to say, our nouns and pronouns have, in general, two number-forms, one singular and the other plural.

Other examples are

book, books; mind, minds; lady, ladies; foot, feet;
ox, oxen; mouse, mice; she or it, they;
this, these; that, those.

3. But if in these sentences we change the number of the subject from singular to plural, we must at the same time change the form of the verb to suit the altered number of the subject. Thus with the singular subject **man** we use **learns**, but with the plural subject **men** we use **learn**; and so with two of the others, although we say both **I go** and **we go**.

This change in the verb when it is made (and it is by no means always made), does not **show** a difference of meaning in the same sense as the change in the noun or pronoun; for the act of learning is the same whether one person or more than one take part in it; it is a change caused by the verb's having to adapt or suit itself for use with its subject.

Now, a change in the form of any word, either to show changes in its own meaning, or to adapt it for use with other words, is called its **INFLECTION**; the name means *a bending into*

a different shape, and the word thus changed in form is said to be INFLECTED.

DEFINITION.—*Inflection is a change in the form of a word depending on differences of its meaning and use.*

REMARK.—The inflection of a noun or pronoun is often called its DECLENSION, and these parts of speech are said to be DECLINED.

DEFINITION.—*Number in nouns and pronouns is the change of form that they undergo to show whether they stand for one thing or more than one.*

4. How the Plural of Nouns is Formed.—The plural of nouns is formed by adding **s** or **es** to the singular: thus,

door, doors; loss, losses; box, boxes; brush, brushes;
lady, ladies; cargo, cargoes; wife, wives.

In old times the plural was also formed by adding **en**, or by changing the vowel of the singular; and we have some words that have retained these old plurals. Thus,

By adding **en**; as,

ox, oxen; brother, brethren.

By changing the vowel of the singular; as,

man, men; foot, feet; mouse, mice.

5. As to the plural in **s** notice

1. That most nouns form their plural by adding **s** only; as,

door, doors; table, tables.

2. That **es** is added when the pronunciation calls for it; that is, when the singular, by ending in a hissing sound, prevents **s** alone from being heard; as,

loss, losses; box, boxes.

3. That **y** following a consonant is changed into **i** before **es** is added; as,

lady, ladies; baby, babies.

4. That **f** in the singular is sometimes changed into **v** in the plural; as,

wife, wives; knife, knives.

5. That some nouns in **o** take **es**; as,

cargo, cargoes; potato, potatoes.

6. Other Ways of Forming the Plural of Nouns.—

1. Many words taken from foreign languages have retained in English their foreign plurals. The following are a few of the most common:—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
beau,	beaux.	memorandum,	memoranda.
axis,	axes.	analysis,	analyses.
basis,	bases.	index,	indices.
stratum,	strata.	phenomenon,	phenomena.
larva,	larvæ.	formula,	formulæ.
datum,	data.	appendix,	appendices.
seraph,	seraphim.	criterion,	criteria.
cherub,	cherubim.	radius,	radii.

2. Some nouns use the same form for both singular and plural: thus,
deer, sheep, salmon, cannon, heathen.

Other nouns, again, are used in the plural only: thus,
news, annals, scissors, shears, tongs, thanks.

3. A few nouns have two plurals with a difference of meaning: thus,

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
brother,	{ brothers, sons of the same parents. brethren, members of the same society.
penny,	{ pennies, separate coins. pence, money computed in pennies.
die,	{ dice, for gaming. dies, for stamping.
pea,	{ peas, separate grains. pease, grains in bulk.
cloth,	{ cloths, kinds of cloth. clothes, articles of apparel.

4. Names of material and abstract nouns are used in the singular only: thus,

clay, silver, justice, clearness.

5. Most compound nouns form the plural like simple nouns: *i.e.*, by adding *s* or *es*: thus,

runaways, forget-me-nots, spoonfuls, steamboats.

But if the compound consists of a noun followed by an adjective word or phrase, the noun part alone takes the plural: thus,

courts-martial, governors-general, brothers-in-law.

6. Letters of the alphabet, figures, and signs are made plural by writing after them *'s*: thus,

Be careful to dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s.

Mind your *p*'s and *q*'s.

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Exercise 91.—Write the plurals of the following words:—

1. Book, table, lamp, stove, window, seat, eye, ear, finger. 2. Cross, kiss, mass, gas, moss, lass; fox, hoax, buzz; brush, fish, bush, wish, dish, thrush; church, match, birch, lurch, bench, finch; horse, race, judge, prize, face, nose, pace. 3. Party, beauty, body, county, country, injury, quantity, quality, duty, century, gaiety, fly. 4. Loaf, knife, wolf, shelf, leaf, thief, self, calf, life, half. 5. Hero, potato, volcano, calico, echo, negro, mulatto; brother, child; goose, woman, tooth.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—After correction, and before slates are cleaned, have the words changed orally back to the singular.

7. How the Plural of Pronouns is Formed.—The only classes of Pronouns that indicate number are the Personal and the Demonstrative (pars. 1 and 3, Lesson XX.), and all these (except **this** and **that** of the latter class) form their plurals, not as nouns do by altering the singular, but by using words that are quite different from the singular: thus,

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

Sing.

Plur.

I,

we.

[my, mine],

[our, ours].

me,

us.

SECOND PERSON.

Sing.

Plur.

thou,

you, ye.

[thy, thine],

[you, yours].

thee,

you.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

THIRD PERSON.

Sing.

Plur.

he, she, it,

they.

[his] [her, hers] [its]

[their, theirs].

him, her, it,

them.

Sing.

Plur.

this,

these.

that,

those.

Exercise 92.—Change the nouns, pronouns, and pronominal adjectives in the following verses into the plural number, and make any other changes required:—

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corse to the ramparts we hurried;
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Nor in sheet, nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest,
With his martial cloak around him.

Exercise 93.—Change the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences into the singular number, and make any other changes required:—

Springs are small things, but mighty rivers often have their sources in springs. The tiny streams that bubble from rocky heights, and then escape from their fountains, grow as they flow down the sides of the mountains; and as they sweep along they often lose themselves in the forests, or plunge out of sight into deep caverns. They bound over rocky ledges, and foam and roar as they fall down lofty cliffs; but when they reach the plains they flow onward more gently, and cease their angry brawlings.

LESSON XXVIII.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS TO INDICATE CASE.

1. But number is not the only inflection of nouns and pronouns. Let us examine the following sentences—

1. He saw something running towards him;
2. it proved to be his watch-dog;
3. and it knew him.

Here the words *he* in 1, *his* in 2, and *him* in 3, are pronouns which evidently stand for the same person. Why, then, this change in their form? A little examination will show that each one stands in a different relation to the other words in its sentence. We find, for instance, that *he*, in 1, stands in the relation of *subject* to the verb *saw*; that *him*, in 3, stands in the

relation of *object* of the transitive verb **knew**; and that **his**, in 2, shows that the person is *possessor* of the watch-dog.

2. Now this kind of inflection, or change in form, to indicate the different relations in which a pronoun stands to other words in the sentence, is called **CASE**.

And the form **he**, which is used when the pronoun stands in the relation of *subject*, is called the **SUBJECTIVE CASE**, or more usually, but less correctly, the **NOMINATIVE**, *i.e.*, the *naming case*. The form **him**, which is used when the pronoun stands in the relation of *object*, is called the **OBJECTIVE CASE**; and the form **his**, which is used when the person stands in the relation of *possessor*, is called the **POSSESSIVE CASE**.

3. If we look again at the sentences, we shall see that the same word **him**, which in 3 is in the objective case after the transitive verb **knew**, is used in 1 also after the *preposition* **towards**. Other examples are

I saw her and spoke to her;
He met us and went with us;
Our father bought it and paid for it;

and so on. This shows, that when a pronoun is connected with some other word by a preposition, *we always use the objective case of the pronoun*, just as when it is the object of a transitive verb.

4. Now let us substitute in our sentences the nouns for which the pronouns stood: thus,

1. **Tom** saw something running towards **Tom**;
2. it proved to be **Tom's** watch-dog;
3. and it knew **Tom**.

Here each noun has, of course, the same relation to the other words in its sentence, as the pronoun had that stood for it, and must, therefore, be in the same case as its pronoun was; that is to say, **Tom**, in 1, because it is the subject of **saw**, is in the subjective or *nominative case*; **Tom's**, in 2, because it shows possession, is in the *possessive case*; while **Tom**, in 3, is in the



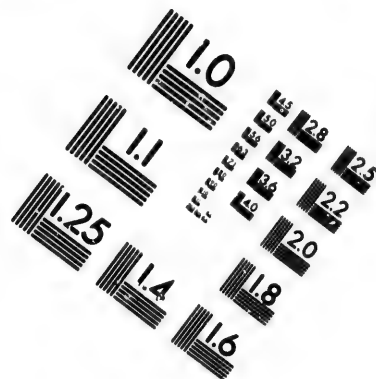
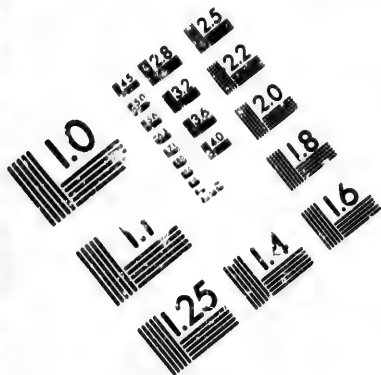
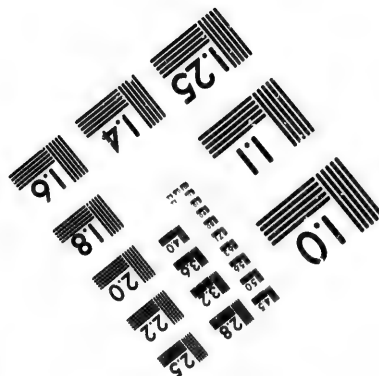
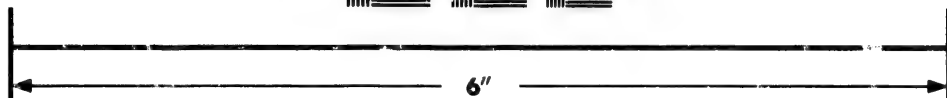
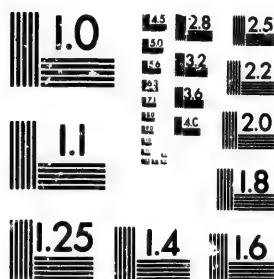
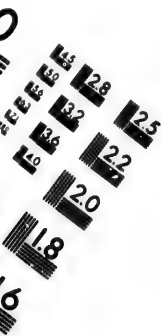


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objective case, as object of **knew**, and in 1, is in the *objective* case after the preposition **towards**.

5. But notice, that while the pronoun has three different forms—**he**, **his**, **him**—for the three cases, the noun has but two: thus, *nominative* and *objective* **Tom**, *possessive* **Tom's**. This is because there is no noun in our language which has for the *objective* case a form different from the *nominative*. We say

The **father** (subj.) loves the **son** (obj.), and the **son** (subj.)
loves the **father** (obj.)

And also after prepositions: thus,

The **father** went with the **son**, and the **son** went
with the **father**;

without any change of the words **father** and **son**.

6. We may now sum up what we have learned about case, and say by way of

DEFINITION.—**Case** is a change of form that nouns and pronouns undergo to indicate their relation to other words in the sentence.

DEFINITION.—The **nominative case** is the form that a noun or a pronoun has when it is the subject of a verb.

DEFINITION.—The **objective case** is the form that a noun or a pronoun has when it is the object of a verb or of a preposition.

DEFINITION.—The **possessive case** is the form that a noun or a pronoun has when it denotes possession.

Exercise 94.—Tell the case of each noun and pronoun in the following sentences:—

1. A hungry dog stole the boy's dinner. 2. The cat scratched the girl's face. 3. The raven's wings are black. 4. The sun's light illumines the world. 5. God's goodness is great. 6. The moon reflects the light of the sun. 7. John threw the book away; it fell into the water. 8. We know our lessons, do you know yours? 9. They met their uncle on the train. 10. I love them that love me.

11. He wrapped her warm in his seaman's coat
Against the stinging blast;
He cut a rope from a broken spar,
And bound her to the mast.

objective case

three different
has but two:

n's. This is
has for the
We say

son (subj.)

went

about case,

and pronouns
the sentence.

at a noun or

a noun or a
position.

at a noun or

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scratched the
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ater. 8. We
uncle on the

7. Since a noun or a pronoun that indicates possession must naturally be followed by a noun naming the thing possessed, it follows that the possessive case of both nouns and pronouns partakes of the nature of an adjective: thus,

Tom's dog, men's hats; my pen, your book, her aunt.

Indeed, the possessive case of pronouns constitutes the class of *possessive pronominal adjectives* treated of in par. 5, Lesson XX.

8. **How the Possessive Case of Nouns is Formed.**—The possessive case of nouns is formed as follows:—

1. The possessive singular is formed from the nominative singular by adding an apostrophe and s ('s), which is called *the sign of the possessive*: thus,

NOM. SING.	POSS. SING.
boy,	boy's.
man,	man's.

2. The possessive plural is formed from the nominative plural by adding an apostrophe only ('): thus,

NOM. PLUR.	POSS. PLUR.
boys,	boys'.
masters,	masters'.

3. But when the nominative plural does not end in s, the possessive plural is formed from the nominative plural by adding an apostrophe and s (like the singular): thus,

NOM. PLUR.	POSS. PLUR.
men,	men's.
children,	children's.

4. Compound nouns, possessive-phrases, and the names of a firm, attach the sign of the possessive to the last word only: thus,

My brother-in-law's farm. The Governor-General's residence.
The Sultan of Egypt's power. Brown, Jones, and Robinson's office.

9. We now present, in one view, examples of the declension of nouns for number and case. Thus,

CASE.	NUMBER.		CASE.	NUMBER.	
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>		<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Nom. & Obj.	cat,	cats.	Nom. & Obj.	man,	men.
Poss.	cat's,	cats'.	Poss.	man's,	men's.

10. How the Cases of Pronouns are Formed.—It was seen in par. 5 that pronouns are more fully inflected than nouns to express case. This is true, not only of the Personal Pronouns (as there shown), but also of the Demonstrative Pronouns of the Third Person; and of **who** and **which**, both Interrogative and Relative. The following scheme shows how, and to what extent, pronouns are inflected for case:—

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Nom.	I,	we.
Poss.	[my, mine],	[our, ours].
Obj.	me,	us.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Nom.	thou,	you, ye.
Poss.	[they, thine],	[you, yours].
Obj.	thee,	you.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
	MASC. FEM. NEUT.	
Nom.	he, she,	it, they.
Poss.	[his] [her, hers] [its],	[their, theirs].
Obj.	him, her,	it, them.

INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE.

Sing. and Plur.

	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	who,	which,
Poss.	whose,	whose,
Obj.	whom,	which.

For the adjective value of the possessive case of these pronouns, see par. 7.

REMARK.—Of the other classes of pronouns none alter to express case.

ed.—It was
than nouns
al Pronouns
Pronouns of
interrogative
nd to what

Exercise 95.—Write the possessive, singular and plural, of the following words:

Model.—

POSSESSIVE CASE.

SING.

PLUR.

horse's,

horses'.

baby's,

babies'.

Chief, cherub, duchess, wife, brother-in-law, heart, gipsy, month, goose, sheep, day, postman, brother, mechanic, man, woman; I, thou, he, she, it.

Parsing.—The class is now in a position to give the full grammatical parsing of a noun. In parsing orally the "reasoning-out" process should be followed till the class is perfectly familiar with the inflection of the noun: thus,

James fulfilled his mother's hopes.

James is a name; therefore it is a noun. It belongs to a particular person; therefore it is a proper noun. It indicates the male sex; therefore it is masculine gender. It denotes but one person; therefore it is singular number. It names the subject of the verb *fulfilled*; therefore it is nominative case; etc., etc.

Parsing of Nouns (SHORT FORM, ORAL OR WRITTEN).—*James fulfilled his mother's hopes.*

Model.—*James*, noun, proper; masculine gender; singular number; nominative case, subject of the verb *fulfilled*.

mother's, noun, common; feminine gender; singular number; possessive case, possessing *hopes*.

hopes, noun, common; abstract; plural number; objective case after the transitive verb *fulfilled*.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—The teacher must always see that written parsing is properly punctuated.

Exercise 96.—Write to the teacher's dictation the following exercise, and then parse the nouns in it:—

1. The boy writes a letter. 2. John's book is lost. 3. A dog was guarding the house. 4. The shepherd watched his master's sheep. 5. The boy is sending a letter to his father. 6. The father wrote a note to the teacher. 7. Almost all idle people find amusement in minding other people's business. 8. My brother attends the Mechanics' Institute. 9. The oxen draw the plough. 10. Mrs. Ryan sells ladies' bonnets and children's hats. 11. I cannot believe the thief's story. 12. The drunkard's home is wretched. 13. Some invalids drink asses' milk. 14. James lost

nouns, see

press case.

his sister's satchel. 15. Mr. A. is president of the sailors' home. 16. Ivory is obtained from elephants' tusks. 17. He disapproved of his son-in-law's conduct. 18. St. James's Cathedral is in Toronto.

11. In composition, preposition-phrases and other modifiers may be placed in any part of the sentence, provided the sense is maintained. By this means we can give variety to our language, and often draw attention to a word, phrase, or clause by placing it in an early, or an unusual position in the sentence: thus,

On Easter Sunday, last year, snow fell to the depth of four inches.
Last year, on Easter Sunday, snow fell to the depth of four inches.
Snow, to the depth of four inches, fell last year on Easter Sunday.

Exercise 97.—Change the order of the words in the following sentences in as many ways as you can, still preserving the sense:—

1. The youth went out early in the morning with light step into the garden. 2. I lost my purse out of my pocket at the Industrial Fair in Toronto on Wednesday of last week. 3. At the dawn of day she ascended the hill with a merry heart in company with her brother. 4. Sir Walter Scott, the poet and novelist, was born in Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, in August, 1771. 5. The field this year yielded a much better crop, through the exertions of the farmer. 6. On the margin of a lake, surrounded by the dense woods of a Canadian forest, stands the cottage in which we delight to pass our summer holidays. 7. We were detained by a snow drift on the C. P. R. last winter in a railway car nearly destitute of fire and provisions. 8. In his remarks he charged me more than one with saying what I never said.

Exercise 98.—Errors for Correction.—Make all necessary corrections in the following, giving reasons where you can:—

1. He was an independent small farmer. 2. Four month's interest is owing on it. 3. That small man is speaking with ed whiskers. 4. The cow eats quietly her grass. 5. How many chimnies has your house. 6. I have joined the Mechanic's Institute. 7. Boy's coats and mens' shoes sold here. 8. This is the thanks we get for our pains. 9. Such holes in the side-walk are so many *mentraps*. 10. One of the courtmartial's sentenced the soldier to a twelvemonth's imprisonment. 11. As the patient was attacked with lock-jaw he could only be fed by spoonsful. 12. There is a boy's school and a girl's school under the same roof. 13. When a person begins to talk like that, they ought to be ashamed of theirselves. 14. How much do you think is this stone's weight? 15. A great *quantity* of people were *laying* about on the grass. 16. There is a farmer's club in our village.

LESSON XXIX.

OTHER INFLECTIONS OF PRONOUNS.

1. We learned in the last two lessons that pronouns as well as nouns have an inflection for number and case. Now, while nouns have these inflections only, pronouns have an inflection also for *person*, and to a slight extent for *gender*, too.

2. **Person.**—We saw in Lesson XX. that some pronouns, namely, the Personal Pronouns and the Demonstrative Pronouns of the Third Person, by a difference in their form, distinguish the person speaking, or the First Person, from the person spoken to, or the Second Person, and both from the person or thing spoken of, or the Third Person; and that this difference in the form of the pronouns was called a difference of **PERSON**. We have thus the

DEFINITION.—**Person** in pronouns is a difference of form by which some of them distinguish the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

The only classes of pronouns that distinguish Person are those just mentioned, *i.e.*, the Personal Pronouns and the Demonstrative Pronouns of the Third Person; and the way in which these distinguish Person is fully shown in par. 10, Lesson XXVIII.

3. **Gender.**—Any person, *male* or *female*, wishing to signify himself or herself, says **I**, and to signify himself or herself and others, **we**. Again, when speaking to one or more persons of *either sex*, we say **you**. This shows that pronouns of the first and second person, *i.e.*, the Personal Pronouns, do not distinguish sex; in other words, they have no gender forms.

But if we use a Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person, and wish to denote a male, we say **he**; to denote a female, we say **she**; and to denote something without sex, or something of which the sex is unimportant, we say **it**; thus showing that this pronoun does distinguish sex, and has different gender forms.

As was explained, when treating of the gender forms of nouns (par. 6, Lesson XVIII.), these gender forms are known as the **MASCULINE**, **FEMININE**, and **NEUTER** gender forms of this pronoun.

But, even in the Demonstrative Pronouns of the Third Person, sex is distinguished by different gender forms in the singular number only; for in the plural, whatever may be the sex of that which we are speaking about, we always say **they**.

4. The inflection of the Demonstrative Pronouns of the Third Person for gender is fully shown in par. 10, Lesson XXVIII., which also shows that the pronoun **who**—Interrogative and Relative—also has gender forms, but to a very slight extent, merely changing **who**—masculine and feminine—into **which** for the neuter. Besides these, no class of pronouns has gender forms to distinguish sex.

Parsing of Pronouns—Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative.—*You said that he met a school-girl who said to him, "Who do you think has taken it away from me?"*

Model.—*You*, pronoun, personal; second person; plural number; nominative case, subject of the verb *told*.

he, pronoun, demonstrative; third person; masculine gender; singular number; nominative case, subject of the verb *met*.

who, pronoun, relative; third person; singular number, to agree with its antecedent, *school-girl*, to which it relates its clause; nominative case, subject of the verb *said*.

him, pronoun, demonstrative; third person; masculine gender; singular number; objective case, object of the preposition *to*.

who, pronoun, interrogative; nominative case, subject of the verb *has taken*.

you, pronoun, personal; second person; plural (for singular) number; nominative case, subject of the verb *do think*.

it, pronoun, demonstrative; neuter gender; singular number; objective case, object of the transitive verb *has taken*.

me, pronoun, personal; first person; singular number; objective case, object of the preposition *from*.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—When the class can parse readily and accurately, the words **person**, **gender**, **number**, **case**, may be omitted.

Exercise 99.—Parse the pronouns in the following sentences according to the foregoing model:—

1. They were all in the school when it happened. 2. I think the box belongs to me. 3. Here he comes; do you see him? 4. She was holding the crying baby, and trying to soothe it. 5. You are doing him an injury. 6. We shall award them the prize. 7. I that speak to thee am he. 8. They never fail, who die in a good cause. 9. "But tell me further," said he, "what thou discoverest on it." 10. The person who told me her story had seen her at a masquerade. 11. Who told you that story? 12. Whom did you see in the office? 13. Shy she was, and I thought her cold.

14. He who serves well, and speaks not, merits more
Than they who clamor loudest at the door.

15. I know not how others saw her,
But to me she was wholly fair.

Exercise 100.—1. Compose sentences, using correctly the pronouns *me, you, it, she, them, we, him, I, us, thou, her, he, they*.

2. Compose sentences which shall illustrate the right use of *who, whose, whom*; first, when Relative; second, when Interrogative.

3. Compose four compound sentences using as the co-ordinating conjunctions—*also, yet, either, or, consequently*.

4. Compose four complex sentences using as the subordinate conjunctions—*if, in order that, because, while*.

Exercise 101.—Correct the following by using capitals, punctuation and other marks where required, and then give reasons for what you have done:—

1. the arabian empire stretched from the atlantic to the chinese wall and from the shores of the caspian sea to those of the indian ocean

2. the man cried out run miss here come the indians dont you see them

3. every stalk bud flower and seed displays a figure a proportion a harmony beyond the reach of art

4. o father i hear the church bells ring

o say what may it be

tis a fog bell on a rock bound coast

and he steered for the open sea

Exercise 102.—Errors for Correction.—Correct whatever is wrong in these sentences, and give, where you can, a reason for the correction:—

1. It was them *as* did the mischief. 2. Her and me were asked to tea.

3. I know the man *what* sold you them books 4. Every boy must work *their* own questions 5. Neither of us *are* willing to give up our claim

6. *Who* did you give that letter to 7. Between you and *I* he'll find that hes made a big mistake. 8. The infant which you admired died suddenly

last tuesday 9. *Fetch* with you them books that are *laying* by my satchel.

10. Lord Dufferin *was* once governor-general of the dominion of canada he was afterwards made viceroy of india 11. The friend who I love is my sisterinlaws cousin. 12. I had no idea but *what* she'd be here. 13. Them

and us went fishing and we caught eighteen trouts. 14. Let you and I go, Tom and him can *stop* here.

LESSON XXX.

CHANGES OF FORM IN ADJECTIVES.

1. With the exception of the demonstrative adjectives, **this** and **that**, which are changed to **these** and **those** when used with a plural noun, no adjectives have inflection to express differences of number, or case, or gender.

2. **Comparison.**—Nevertheless, the form of most adjectives that express a quality can be varied to mark the *degree* of the quality in the object they describe, when such object is compared as to the same quality with one or more other objects. Let us take as an illustration

My sweet apple.

Here, by using the adjective **sweet** in connection with **apple**, we do not assert that the apple is sweet (that can be done only by means of a verb), but the apple must possess the quality of sweetness to a decided, positive extent, before we can use the word **sweet** with reference to it.

If, after comparing my apple with yours *as to the quality of sweetness*, I find that there is more sweetness in my apple than in yours, I add **er** to the word **sweet**, and say

My apple is **sweeter** than yours.

Again, if after comparing my apple *as to sweetness* with several others I find that it surpasses them all in sweetness, I add **est** to the word **sweet**, and say

My apple is **sweetest** of all.

3. These variations—**er** and **est**—in the form of the adjective are thus seen to be the result of a *comparison* as to the extent to which two, or more than two, objects possess some given quality; for this reason the adjective thus changed is said to be *compared*, and the three forms of it (as **sweet**, **sweeter**, **sweetest**) that mark different degrees of the quality, are called the three **DEGREES OF COMPARISON**.

4. The simple, unaltered form of the adjective (**sweet**), which merely expresses the quality, is called the **POSITIVE** degree. (*Positive* here means *unaltered, stating simply, without modification*.)

The form in **er** (**sweeter**), which expresses a greater degree of the quality, since it is the result of *comparing* at least two objects, is called the **COMPARATIVE** degree.

Lastly, the form in **est** (**sweetest**), which expresses a greatest degree of the quality, *i.e.*, the degree that surpasses other degrees, is called the **SUPERLATIVE** degree. (*Superlative* means *surpassing*.)

It is well to observe that this variation of form that adjectives thus undergo to express a greater degree and a greatest degree of a quality, is, strictly speaking, rather a matter of *derivation* than of *inflection*. It is, nevertheless, conveniently treated of under inflection.

The following are additional examples of the comparison of adjectives :—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
tall,	taller,	tallest.
bright,	brighter,	brightest.
steady,	steadier,	steadiest.
lovely,	lovelier,	loveliest.

Exercise 103.—Compare the following adjectives :—

Young, pure, rich, late, dull, noble, quiet, noisy, simple, true.

5. There are, however, a few adjectives that do not form the comparative and superlative by simply adding **er** and **est** to the positive. The following, as will be seen, are compared irregularly :—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good,	better,	best.
bad (evil, ill),	worse,	worst.
little,	less,	least.
much or many,	more,	most.
far,	farther,	farthest.
near,	nearer,	nearest or next.
late,	later,	latest or last.
fore,	former,	foremost or first.
old,	older or elder,	oldest or eldest.

6. Except the foregoing and a few others, all adjectives of one syllable are compared regularly by **er** and **est**; so also are some of two syllables. But many adjectives of two syllables cannot be so compared; for, although we say

able, abler, ablest; common, commoner, commonest,
we never say

cautious, cautiouser, cautiouserest, or
distant, distanter, distantest.

And no adjective of three or more syllables is, nowadays, compared regularly; for instance, we never say

brillianter or agreeablest.

7. Such adjectives of two syllables as it is not customary to compare regularly, and all adjectives of three or more syllables, are compared by putting before the positive the adverb **more** for the comparative, and the adverb **most** for the superlative: thus,

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
agreeable,	more agreeable,	most agreeable.
cautious,	more cautious,	most cautious.

Here, the form of the adjective itself is not varied at all; it merely has the words **more** and **most** put before it; yet, as the adjective-phrases made up of the positive with **more** and **most** denote the same sort of comparison as the variations **er** and **est**, the adjectives, for convenience' sake, are said to be compared by **more** and **most**.

8. Some adjectives, from the nature of their meaning, do not admit of comparison by either method. Examine, in this respect, the following combinations:—

Horizontal line, **circular** saw, **leather** satchel; **Canadian** scenery, the **Crooks** Act, **police** regulations; **infinite** mercy, **weekly** mail; **eight** boys, the **eighth** boy; **our** territory, **this** age, **each** year, **all** (**certain, some, other**) men, etc.

Exercise 104.—Compare, when possible, the following adjectives:—

Little, undefiled, good, poor, desolate, bad, hungry, intimate, needy, old, many, everlasting, bright, thin, dismal, far, yonder, metallic, near,

nigh, much, square, distant, timid, eighth, dry, wet, upright, perpendicular, fierce, wooden, silvery, national, perfect, complete, free, merry, beautiful, that, each, your, faithful.

Parsing.—An adjective is parsed by telling its kind, its degree, comparing it (if possible), and saying what noun (or pronoun) it modifies.

This studious boy is the best scholar of all my hundred pupils.

Model.—*This*, a pronominal adjective; demonstrative; modifying *boy*.

studious, a qualifying adjective; positive degree; compared by **more** and **most**; modifying *boy*.

best, a qualifying adjective; superlative degree; compared irregularly, thus: **good**, **better**, **best**; modifying *scholar*.

all, a pronominal adjective; indefinite; modifying *pupils*.

my, a pronominal adjective; possessive; modifying *pupils*.

hundred, a quantifying adjective; modifying *pupils*.

Exercise 105.—Parse, according to the foregoing model, the adjectives found in the following sentences:—

1. That kind boy helped the old man with his heavy load. 2. The rapid train soon completed its long journey. 3. The first fresh dawn awoke us from our drowsy sleep. 4. Have you any money? I have a little. I have three or four dollars. 5. Many men have many minds. 6. Not all clever boys are good boys. 7. Each boy must do his best. 8. Far other aims his heart had learned to prize. 9. The whole affair was disgraceful. 10. Every girl in the class heard him make that mistake. 11. Great results from little causes spring. 12. What account can you give of the sad affair? 13. Which way did he go? 14. Every fourth year is called Leap-year. 15. Two heads are better than one. 16. Every tenth man was shot. 17. Who are those people in yon carriage? 18. All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy. 19. Drunkenness is the cause of many deaths and much misery.

20. The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old.

21. Sweet is the breath of summer morn,
And sweet the sight of golden corn;
And sweet, at evening's closing hour,
The balmy breeze, the fragrant flower.

'Tis sweet when harvest glories shine,
When glowing clusters load the vine;
When bows the heavy tree, and pours
In Autumn's lap its juicy stores.

Exercise 106.—Express the sense of the following adjectives: first, by a preposition phrase; second, by an adjective clause:—

The very strong man.

Model.—1. *The man of great strength.*

2. *The man* { *who is very strong, or*
 " has great strength, or
 " possesses great strength, or
 " abounds in great strength, or
 whose strength is very great.

Select the relative clause that sounds best.

1. The courageous beast. 2. The tender-hearted girl. 3. Wintry storms. 4. A well-principled boy. 5. An honest person. 6. An exceedingly well-informed woman. 7. That mournful day. 8. The evening star. 9. Shoeless feet. 10. His pitiless breast. 11. A very industrious pupil. 12. The very beautiful scene.

LESSON XXXI.

THE VERB.—INFLECTION FOR PERSON AND NUMBER.

1. A verb, as we have seen (par. 3, Lesson VII.), is a word by means of which we can make an assertion; and as a sentence is the assertion of something, it follows that every sentence must have in it a verb.

2. The assertion made is sometimes that of *existence*: as, **Troy was**; sometimes that of *a state*: as, **He sleeps**; sometimes that of *an action*: as, **They ran**; sometimes that of *suffering an action*: as, **The boy was beaten**.

3. **Person.**—If we use as subjects the three pronouns

I, thou, he (she or it),

we shall find that we must generally make a change in the end-

ing of the verb to suit the **person** of the pronoun that we use as subject: thus,

SINGULAR.

First person	I write.
Second "	Thou write- st .
Third "	He write- s .

Here the action asserted of the subject by the verb is the same in each statement, so that the difference observed in the form of the verb does not denote a change in its meaning. It is a change made solely to suit the **person** of the subject; in other words, the **person** of the subject decides or **governs** the form of the verb that is to follow it; the subject being given, the verb is compelled to **agree** with it in respect to person.

4. These words, **government** and **agreement**, are much used in grammar, and the above is an illustration of their meaning. Here, the **person** of the subject decides or **governs** the form of the verb; the verb **agrees** with, or adapts itself to, the subject.

5. No English verb has different forms to put with the plurals of the personal pronouns: *i.e.*, in the plural, the verb is the same with each person. It is always like the first person singular: thus,

PLURAL.

First person	We	} write.
Second "	You	
Third "	They	

6. When the subject of the verb is of the first, second, or third person, singular or plural, the verb itself is said to be of that person. And we may notice here, that a verb is of the first or of the second person only when its subject is a *pronoun* of the first or of the second person. Every *noun* has the verb in the third person: thus,

John learns. The dog learns. The tree falls.

We express this in the following rule:

A verb agrees with its subject in person.

7. Number.—We shall have to make, in the form of our verb, a change different from that which we made in it for person, if in such sentences as the following we use the plural form of the subjects instead of the singular: thus,

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
The boy runs.	The boys run.
The man talks.	The men talk.
Thou lovest.	You love.
He eats.	They eat.

8. Here, too, the change made in each verb does not indicate any change in its meaning, that is, in the action expressed by it; the verb has merely adapted itself to the **number** of its subject. And just as it was said to be of the first, second, or third **person**, according as its subject was first, second, or third person, so is it said to be of the singular or the plural **number**, according as the subject is singular or plural. This we express in the following rule:

A verb agrees with its subject in number.

9. The verb, we have seen, has not many changes to indicate person and number; for all the persons in the plural are alike, and always the same as the first singular, and often the same as the third singular. And as to number, the only changes are **st** of the second singular (which person we almost never use), and **s** of the third singular.

Since changes for person and number are the only changes that a verb undergoes to adapt itself to its subject, we combine the two foregoing rules and say

A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

Exercise 107.—Tell the person and number of the following verbs, and then give each person and number of the verb in full:—

1. We sleep. 2. They read. 3. It fits. 4. He loves. 5. Thou praisest. 6. You carry. 7. I run. 8. Thou sinnest. 9. He digs. 10. We go. 11. They can. 12. I may.

13. The boy stood on the burning deck. 14. It is noble to forgive. 15. You disappointed me. 16. So knelt she in her woe. 17. And the mighty rocks came bounding down. 18. I stood on the bridge at midnight. 19. I pity those poor children; they have no father. 20. We

learn to do by doing. 21. Lovest thou me? 22. As you sow, so you reap.
23. John Maynard watched the nearing flames.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—When the addition of *st* or *s* alters the spelling of the verbal stem, as it does in some of the first 12 previous sentences, the teacher will do well to notice and explain it.

10. An excellent exercise in composition consists in taking some sentences as models, and in changing entirely the subject matter while preserving the general structure of the sentences: thus,

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Beavers are found in Canada. | 1. Camels are used in Arabia. |
| 2. The day broke beautifully clear,
and having crossed a deep
valley between the hills, we
toiled up the opposite slope. | 2. The sun was intensely hot, and
having found a leafy tree be-
side a stream, we rested in
its cool shade. |

Exercise 108.—Change the subject matter of the following sentences, but preserve the general structure:—

1. The bridge across the Trent has been lately rebuilt. 2. There were three of us—my brother, myself, and our guide. 3. Toronto, the capital of Ontario, is situated in the county of York. 4. Shoes are made of leather, and leather is obtained from the skins and hides of animals. 5. The way to be rich is to have few wants. 6. Many cities are now lighted by electricity. 7. In some parts of the world gold is found in the sands of the rivers. 8. Mungo Park, the African explorer, had his trust in Providence restored by observing the beauty of a little moss. 9. A young girl had fatigued herself one hot day by running about in the garden; so when she sat down in the cool summer-house she soon fell asleep. 10. When I am in a serious humor I very often walk by myself in Westminster Abbey, where the gloominess of the place, and the use to which it is applied, are apt to fill the mind with a kind of melancholy that is not disagreeable.

11. Beside yon straggling fence that skirts the way
The village master taught his little school.

LESSON XXXII.

THE VERB.—INFLECTION FOR TENSE AND MOOD.

1. **Tense.**—In the previous lesson we learned of two inflections of the verb, one for person and one for number; and we saw that neither of these inflections indicates a difference in the meaning of the verb; each is caused by the verb's having, in some instances, to accommodate itself to a difference, either in the person or in the number of its subject.

But, besides being varied to suit the person and the number of the subject, verbs are varied also in two respects to signify real differences of meaning belonging to themselves. One of these variations is for the purpose of showing a difference in the *time* of the action or of the state expressed by the verb.

Thus, I **love** is used especially of what is going on now, at the present time, and is therefore said to be of the PRESENT TENSE (for *tense* means *time*); while I **loved** is used of something gone by or in the past, and is, therefore, called the PAST TENSE. And we have in like manner, as corresponding present and past,

I **lead** and I **led**,
 I **hold** and I **held**,
 He **sits** and He **sat**,
 You **laugh** and You **laughed**,
 The boy **runs** and The boy **ran**,
 The men **talk** and The men **talked**.

This is called the inflection of the verb for TENSE.

2. It is only in these two tenses, the present and the past, that the verb varies to denote time; for, although we can easily express the fact that an act, etc., takes place in other times than the present or past, we do so, not by varying the form of the verb, but by using what are called verb-phrases, *i.e.*, compound forms of it: *e.g.* :—

The boy **will run**, **has run**, **had run**, etc.

As these compound forms, however, are not inflections, their consideration is deferred for the present; see Lesson XXXVI.

3. **Mood.**—The other variation in the verb is made much less frequently, and is for the purpose of showing a difference in the *mode* or manner in which the action or state expressed by the verb is presented to our mind; that is, whether as a simple, out-and-out assertion, or as a doubtful, contingent assertion, or as a command.

4. When a verb makes a simple out-and-out assertion, in other words, when it *indicates* that something is an actual fact (or asks whether something is an actual fact), it is said to be in

the INDICATIVE mood. (*Mood* is only another form of the word *mode*, and means *manner*.) Thus,

He walks, I went, They struck him.

The indicative mood, then, is the mood of simple assertion.

5. When a verb makes a doubtful, contingent assertion, that is, when it expresses not an *actual*, but a *possible*, fact—something that is doubtful, uncertain or supposed, it is said to be in the SUBJUNCTIVE mood, because the clause which contains a verb in this mood is usually *subjoined* to (*i.e.*, put before or after), and made dependent upon, a principal clause: thus,

I will call you, if he come.

Though he go, I shall stay.

The subjunctive mood, then, is the mood of doubtful assertion.

6. When a verb expresses a command, a desire, or an entreaty, it is said to be in the IMPERATIVE mood. (*Imperative* means *commanding*). Thus,

Walk thou. Go you. Leave us. See him.

The imperative mood, then, is the mood of command or entreaty.

7. These three moods, the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative, are the only moods that are marked by inflection; and of these, the indicative, from its nature, is in most frequent use. Indeed, it has supplanted the subjunctive in the language of every-day life, and left the latter to be found almost wholly in written works and in grammars.

8. The imperative mood has only one form, and this is the same as the subjunctive present. It can, from its nature, be used only in the second person and in the present tense. The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted, because, being spoken to, there can be no doubt as to who is meant; it can be easily supplied, however—singular, **thou**; plural, **ye** or **you**. The seeming harshness of this mode of speech makes us often avoid it, and instead of saying

come, go, fetch me, etc.,

we use a form which appears to leave it to the choice of the person addressed, and say

Will you come, go, fetch me, etc.

Parsing.—You are now able to parse the verb so far as to tell its person, number, tense and mood; and to say whether it is transitive or intransitive.

He said, "Tell him that I wish I were in Toronto."

Model.—*said*, a verb, transitive; third person; singular number; past tense; indicative mood; agreeing with its subject *he*.

tell, a verb, transitive; second person; singular number; present tense; imperative mood; agreeing with its subject *thou* or *you*, understood.

wish, a verb, transitive; first person; singular number; present tense; indicative mood; agreeing with its subject *I*.

were, a verb, transitive; first person; singular number; past tense; subjunctive mood; agreeing with its subject *I*.

Exercise 109.—Parse the verbs of the following exercise, as fully as you can, according to the above model:—

1. He knelt beside the grave. 2. We know our lessons. 3. Each horseman drew his battle-blade. 4. Lord, Thou seest me. 5. I dreamt not now to claim its aid. 6. "Try not the Pass!" the old man said. 7. Thy secret keep; I urge thee not. 8. They tug, they strain! down, down they go. 9. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown. 10. He who steals my purse, steals trash. 11. It nerves my heart; it steels my sword. 12. Fools, who came to scoff, remained to pray. 13. Be still, sad heart! and cease repining. 14. Short is the bliss that sin bestows. 15. Act, act in the living present.

16. What recked the chieftain if he stood
On Highland heath or Holyrood!
He rights such wrong, where it is given,
If it were in the court of heaven.

17. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave thy low vaulted past.

Exercise 110.—Retaining the same person, change the number of the subjects of the verbs of the foregoing exercise, singular into plural and plural into singular, as the case may be; and make the necessary changes in the verbs.

Exercise 111.—Retaining the subjects, change the verbs of the foregoing exercise, from present tense to past tense, and from past to present, as the case may be.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—For more of this useful practice, teachers may take suitable previous exercises, or extracts from the Readers. As to the impossibility of changing the tense of the imperative, see par. 8 of this lesson.

Exercise 112.—Errors for Correction.—Correct the following, giving reasons where possible:—

1. *Will* I bring your glasses? 2. Has he selected you and I? 3. He don't know *nothing* about it. 4. They have *laid* here since morning. 5. There is seven or eight in my room. 6. Where was you when I came? 7. You must try and read more distinct. 8. In what latitude is Chicago *in*? 9. Go and *lay* down for a while. 10. Neither you or me are invited. 11. I cannot run *no* farther. 12. At what hotel are you *stoping*? 13. He wishes you had went yesterday. 14. Each of the boys have their books. 15. It isn't him, I don't think. 16. Was there many at the meeting? 17. We have a daily mail every day now. 18. We were compelled to return *back*. 19. *Rise* your feet off the floor. 20. They had *not* hardly a minute to spare. 21. It is undoubtedly true *what* I have heard. 22. Godliness with contentment are great gain. 23. They know scarcely that temperance is a virtue. 24. The number of sufferers have now been ascertained. 25. I am afraid lest I have labored in vain. 26. At christmas the shop windows look invitingly. 27. It was them what broke the window. 28. Give every word and syllable their proper sound. 29. Whether he expects to stay I don't know.

LESSON XXXIII.

THE VERB.—INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

1. The indicative, subjunctive, and imperative forms that have been described in the last two lessons, are all the forms of inflection which the verb has in English. But there are certain derived words, made from almost every verb in the language, which are so important and so much used, and used in such ways, that they are always given along with the inflected forms as part of the conjugation of the verb, although they are not really verbs, since they make no assertion: they are only nouns and adjectives. They are called INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES.

2. Infinitives.—If we say

He plays; or, He ploughs,

we declare that some one is the doer of an action. And if we wish to name the action he is doing, we say it is that of

playing or ploughing.

Now, these last words, being *names* of actions, are in reality nouns; and as such they can be made the subjects of verbs, or the objects of verbs or of prepositions: thus,

SUBJECTS.	OBJECTS.
Playing is pleasant.	He likes playing .
Ploughing is healthy work.	He is fond of ploughing .

The words, it will be observed, are derived from the verbs **play** and **plough** by adding **-ing** to the simple form of the verb, as found in the first singular, present indicative, viz.: I **play**, I **plough**: thus,

play-ing, plough-ing.

3. And besides this form in **-ing**, there is another which we can use with exactly the same meaning, and which is made by prefixing the preposition **to** to the same simple form of the verb: thus,

SUBJECTS.	OBJECTS.
To play is pleasant.	He likes to play .
To plough is healthy work.	He likes to plough .

4. These words, then, **playing** and **to play**, **ploughing** and **to plough**, are a kind of verbal noun which names in a general way the action or the state which the verb asserts. And verbal nouns of this kind can be made in a similar way from almost every verb in the language. They are called **INFINITIVES**; the word means *unlimited*; and this part of the verb is so called because it expresses in a general, indefinite way, the action or state expressed by the verb, and is not *limited* as to form by the person and number of any subject, as other parts of the verb are; (par. 4, Lesson XXXI.)

5. We distinguish the two forms of infinitives by calling one the **INFINITIVE IN -ING**; and the other, the **INFINITIVE WITH TO**. As to this last, however, it must here be mentioned that in many cases, which we shall notice when we come to treat of verb-

n reality
verbs, or

phrases in Lesson XXXVII., the "sign" to of the infinitive is omitted (or dropped, as it is called): thus,

Bid him (to) **come**. I dare (to) **say** so. Let me (to) **speak**.

I saw you (to) **take** them.

thing.

the verbs
the verb,
I play, I

The infinitive with to is also called the **ROOT-INFINITIVE**, because, as we shall see in the next lesson, the **STEM** or simplest form of the verb, from which other forms are made by various alterations, is obtained (or grows as it were) from it.

It is not easy for junior pupils to distinguish between the infinitive in -ing and an ordinary abstract noun (par. 5, Lesson XVIII.) having the same termination. But it is safe to call such a word an infinitive when it is modified or completed as a verb alone can be modified or completed, and an abstract noun when not so modified: thus,

Infinitive in -ing,

He showed great courage in boldly **facing** the enemy.

Keeping bad company is the ruin of many.

By **starting** early we avoided the heat.

Abstract nouns,

His graceful **skating** was much admired.

Jane's **reading** was unsurpassed.

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6. Participles.—When a mother loves her child, she may be described as a **loving** mother; if a house is on fire, it may be described as a **burning** house. In the same way we may describe a person who gives as a **giving** person, and a star that falls as a **falling** star.

Here, the words

loving, burning, giving, falling,

though formed, as is easily seen, by adding **-ing** to the simple form of the verbs

love, burn, give, fall,

have the value of adjectives, since they modify the nouns **mother, house, person, and star**.

7. Besides these words in **-ing**, there is another word formed from each of the above-named verbs that can also be used to modify a noun. For we may describe a child as a **loved** child, a

house as a **burnt** house, a thing as a **given** thing, and a star as a **fallen** star.

Here, too, though formed from verbs, the words

loved, burnt, given, fallen,

have the value of adjectives, since they are used to modify nouns.

8. These words, then,

loving, loved; burning, burnt; giving, given;
falling, fallen;

are a kind of verbal adjective that expresses in the form of an adjective that which the verb asserts. And verbal adjectives of this kind can be made from almost every verb in the language. They are called PARTICIPLES. The word means *participating, sharing*; and these parts of the verb are so called, because, while really adjectives, they share also the nature of verbs. (See par. 12 below next page).

9. We distinguish the two forms of participle by calling the one that ends in **-ing** the IMPERFECT participle. *Imperfect* means here *unfinished, incomplete*; and this form of the participle is so called because it expresses an unfinished or incomplete action or state of the object signified by the noun that it modifies. Thus, when we speak of a **running** stream or a **sleeping** child, we mean a stream that is still running, *i.e.*, has not finished or completed the act of running, and a child that has not finished its sleep, *i.e.*, is still in the sleeping state.

Though quite different in meaning and use, this *imperfect* participle is now of the same *form* as the infinitive in **-ing**, from which, however, it must be carefully distinguished.

10. The other participle which has a variety of endings, viz.: **d**, as in **loved**; **t**, as in **burnt**; **n**, as in **given**; or none at all, as in **run**, is called the PERFECT participle, because it expresses a *completed* action or state of the object signified by the noun. Thus, a **burnt** house or a **given** thing, is one upon which the action of burning or of giving is completed or finished.

11. Since, before we can speak of a house as a **burnt** house, or of a present as a **given** present, the house must have *suffered* or *endured* the action of burning, and the present the action of giving, the participles **burnt** and **given** are also called *PASSIVE* participles; *passive* means *suffering* or *enduring*.

12. By reason of their verbal nature, both the infinitive and the participle may be modified by an adverb or adverb-phrase, and (when transitive) may be completed by an object, in just the same way as the verbs from which they come: thus,

(1) *Infinitives completed by object, and modified by adverb and adverb-phrase.*

This is the weather { **to gather the wheat safely into the barn.**
for **gathering** " " " "

(2) *Imperfect participle completed by object, and modified by adverb and adverb-phrase.*

I see the farmer **gathering the wheat safely into**
his barn.

(3) *Perfect (or passive) participle, modified by adverb and adverb-phrase.*

Flowers **transplanted carefully in Spring** will bloom
in Summer.

13. The infinitive, with the word that completes it, is called an *INFINITIVE* phrase; and the participle, with the word that completes it, is called a *PARTICIPLE* phrase. Thus, in (1), **to gather the wheat**, and **gathering the wheat** are *infinitive* phrases; in (2), **gathering the wheat** is a *participle* phrase.

14. By reason of their noun power, the infinitive with *to* (or root-infinitive), and the infinitive in *-ing* may be modified by an adjective: thus,

To play is pleasant. **Waiting** so long is **tiresome.**

And the infinitive in *-ing* may also be modified by a noun in the possessive, or by a possessive adjective: thus,

John's rising rapidly in his class is **creditable** to him.

Did you hear of **my gaining** the prize?

Exercise 113.—In the following sentences point out the infinitives

and participles; say also of what kind they are, and how they are modified or completed:—

To distinguish the infinitive in -ing from the imperfect participle, bear in mind that the former is always the name of some action, state of being, etc., and has therefore the nature of a noun; while the latter always modifies some noun, and has therefore the nature of an adjective.

1. We saw the sinking ship. 2. To live in suspense is wretched. 3. A sudden trembling seized on all his limbs. 4. The trembling hope is unconfirmed. 5. A piercing cry rang through the startled air. 6. The eye of the cat is formed for seeing in the dark. 7. Most people eat to live, but some live to eat. 8. He tapped each growing tree with his *walking-stick*. 9. That evening sky was a blending of all beauties. 10. They wish to turn him from keeping bad company. 11. To err is human; to forgive divine. 12. The king, approving the plan, was not long in executing it. 13. Cradled in the field, the army loved him. 14. We saw him turning the corner. 15. Turring from an old habit is difficult. 16. Praising oneself is a sign of vanity. 17. Learn to labor and to wait. 18. Caught by the darkness, we lost our way. 19. You deserve praise for writing this letter; what writing-table had you? 20. Brandishing their broadswords, they swept through the wavering troops, giving them no time for rallying their ranks. 21. We live on, loathing our life, and dreading still to die.

15. Participles serve a very useful purpose in composition, by furnishing an elegant and convenient way of contracting a compound or a complex sentence. Thus the compound sentence

We ascended the mountain, and had a wide prospect,

or the complex sentence

When we had ascended the mountain, we had a wide prospect,

is more elegantly and shortly expressed by using for one of the clauses a participle-phrase: thus,

Having ascended the mountain, we had a wide prospect.

Exercise 114.—Contract the following compound and complex sentences by using participle-phrases where possible:—

1. If you pursue this course you will be ruined. 2. The ships were in extreme peril, for the river was low. 3. At length the messenger, who had been long expected, arrived. [Six words.] 4. This is a blessing which heaven has sent. [Five words.] 5. When the day dawned, we set out. 6. When they found the darkness, which they dreaded, coming on, they hastened their steps. [Ten words.] 7. The jury appeared in their box, and there was a breathless silence in the court. 8. The breeze, which had hitherto favored us, died away. [Six words.] 9. When I entered the cemetery, I observed a grave which had newly been dug. [Eight words.] 10. In the spring of 1493, while the court was still at

Barcelona, letters were received from Columbus which announced his return to Spain.

11. Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone,
And o'er his cold ashes upbraid him.

Exercise 115.—Make twelve sentences that shall exhibit the correct use of **saw** and **seen** (six of each); and twelve more that shall exhibit the correct use of **did** and **done** (six of each).

Exercise 116.—**Errors for Correction.**—Correct all errors in the following, with reasons:—

CAUTION.—Never use past participles for past tenses. Say, I did it, not I done it; I saw it, not I seen it.

1. A great number of masons were employed 2. Everybody are going to the concert except you and I. 3. You shouldn't have undertook the business 4. Have you wrote that letter you had to? 5. I don't mind of ever seeing you before. 6. Leave it be till they come. 7. Your brother's arm is broke, and the Doctor hasn't came yet. 8. Them hats didn't ought to be laying there. 9. Thinks I to myself they have came in vain. 10. Leave it setting on the stove. 11. I never seen anything like it; but here comes two firemen 12. You didn't ought to have went so early. 13. Potatoes is very plenty this year, and so is apples. 14. You have soon forgot that he done you that kindness 15. Wheat has rose three cents a bushel yesterday 16. Look what holes Tom has wore in the toe of his shoes 17. We got into the barn and laid there an hour. 18. He has went without his mits, and I'm afeard his hands will be froze.

LESSON XXXIV.

THE VERB.—CONJUGATIONS.

1. If we take the simple forms or stems of the verbs **love** and **give**, as obtained from the root-infinitive by dropping the **to**, and form from them the **past tense** and the **perfect participle** of these verbs, we shall find that we have to follow two different methods: thus,

ROOT-INFINITIVE.	STEM.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PAR'CLE.
to love,	love,	loved,	loved,
to give,	give,	gave,	given.

In the case of **love**, to form both past tense and perfect participle we add a **d** to the stem *love*. In the case of **give**, to form the past tense we change the vowel of the stem (*give* to *gave*), and to form the perfect participle we add to the stem an **n**.

In following the first of these methods, if the stem does not end in **e**, we have to add **ed**; and, in some cases, for ease of pronunciation, this **d** or **ed** is changed into **t**: thus,

work,	worked,	worked;
leap,	leapt,	leapt;

and with a changed sound of the stem vowel—

sleep,	slept,	slept.
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Additional examples of this method are

praise,	praised,	praised;
wish,	wished,	wished;
keep,	kept,	kept.

In following the second of these methods, if the stem does not end in **e**, to form the perfect participle, we often add **en**: thus,

fall,	fell,	fallen.
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Additional examples of this method are

blow,	blew,	blown;
shake,	shook,	shaken;
bite,	bit,	bitten.

2. Now, almost every verb in the language forms its past tense and its perfect participle in one or the other of these two methods; and, consequently, verbs are divided into two great classes according as they follow the one or the other. These classes are called **CONJUGATIONS**.

3. Because the method of forming the past tense and perfect participle followed by verbs like **give**, viz., by changing the vowel of the stem and adding **n** or **en**, is an *older* way than that followed by verbs like **love**, that add **d** or **ed** to the stem, verbs that follow the former method are called verbs of the **OLD** conjugation, while verbs that follow the latter method are called verbs of the **NEW** conjugation.

Moreover, verbs that follow either of these methods are said

to be conjugated REGULARLY, or to be REGULAR verbs of the Old or of the New conjugation, as the case may be.

We may now sum up what has here been said, and say—

DEFINITION.—*The conjugation of a verb is its method of forming its past tense and perfect participle from the stem.*

DEFINITION.—*Regular verbs of the new conjugation are those that form their past tense and perfect participle by adding d, ed, or t to the stem.*

DEFINITION.—*Regular verbs of the old conjugation are those that form their past tense by changing the vowel of the stem, and their perfect participle by adding n or en to the stem.*

4. Sometimes the Old Conjugation is called the STRONG conjugation, and the New, the WEAK, for the reason that verbs of the Old Conjugation were thought *strong* enough to form their past tense within themselves, and without outside help; whereas verbs of the New were too *weak* to do so, and had to get the aid of an additional syllable. So we see that the distinction between the two conjugations really consists in the adding, or the not adding, to the stem, of a syllable to form the past tense.

5. If, then, we know the infinitive or stem, the past tense, and the perfect participle of any verb, we can tell to which conjugation it belongs, and can put it through all its inflections of person, number, tense, and mood. Hence, these three—the infinitive, the past tense, and the perfect participle—are called the PRINCIPAL PARTS of the verb; and, in describing a verb, they are given: thus,

love, loved, loved;	give, gave, given;
teach, taught, taught;	sing, sang, sung;
go, went, gone;	be, was, been.

When we put a verb through all its inflections, we are said to CONJUGATE it, but we are sometimes said to conjugate a verb if we indicate its conjugation by giving the principal parts only. (*To conjugate means to yoke or join together.*)

6. The verbs **praise** and **write**, since they exhibit all the inflected and derived forms of the Old and the New conjugations respectively, may be taken as models.

NEW CONJUGATION.

PRAISE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Praise, Praised, Praised.

INFLECTED FORMS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Person.*

- 1 *Sing.* I **praise**,
 2 " Thou **praisest**,
 3 " He **praises**.
 1 *Plu.* We **praise**,
 2 " You (Ye) **praise**,
 3 " They **praise**.

Past Tense.

- 1 *Sing.* I **praised**,
 2 " Thou **praisedst**,
 3 " He **praised**.
 1 *Plu.* We **praised**,
 2 " You (Ye) **praised**,
 3 " They **praised**.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- 1, 2, 3 *Sing.* (If) I, thou, he **praise**.
 1, 2, 3 *Plu.* (If) We, you, they "

Past Tense.

- 1, 2, 3 *Sing.* (If) I, thou, he **praised**.
 1, 2, 3 *Plu.* (If) We, you, they "

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- 2 **Praise** (thou or you).

OLD CONJUGATION.

WRITE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Write, Wrote, Written.

INFLECTED FORMS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Person.*

- 1 *Sing.* I **write**,
 2 " Thou **writest**,
 3 " He **writes**.
 1 *Plu.* We **write**,
 2 " You (Ye) **write**,
 3 " They **write**.

Past Tense.

- 1 *Sing.* I **wrote**,
 2 " Thou **wrotest**,
 3 " He **wrote**.
 1 *Plu.* We **wrote**,
 2 " You (Ye) **wrote**,
 3 " They **wrote**.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- 1, 2, 3 *Sing.* (If) I, thou, he **write**.
 1, 2, 3 *Plu.* (If) We, you, they "

Past Tense.

- 1, 2, 3 *Sing.* (If) I, thou, he **wrote**.
 1, 2, 3 *Plu.* (If) We, you, they "

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- 2 **Write** (thou or you).

DERIVED FORMS.

INFINITIVES.

(To) **praise.****Praising.**

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, **Praising.***Perfect,* **Praised.**

DERIVED FORMS.

INFINITIVES.

(To) **write.****Writing.**

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, **Writing.***Perfect,* **Written.**

7. It will be noticed that in regular verbs of the New Conjugation the only forms that are actually different are six, namely,

praise, praisest, praises, praised, praisedst, praising;

while in regular verbs of the Old Conjugation there are seven, namely,

write, writest, writes, wrote, wrotest, writing, written.

8. It will be noticed, too, that as regards the inflection of the tenses, the subjunctive tenses have but one form for all persons and both numbers; and that, in the indicative, the second person singular adds **st** or **est** in both tenses, while the third person singular is like the first in the past tense, but in the present adds **s** or **es**.

Exercise 117.—Taking the verb **praise** as a model, give the conjugation of the verbs—*love, work, call, wish, keep, tell.*

Exercise 118.—Taking the verb **write** as a model, give the conjugation of the verbs—*give, see, fall, shake, bite.*

9. It was shown on page 116 that participles often afford a short and elegant way of expressing a thought which otherwise would have to be expressed by a complete sentence. In using a participle for this purpose, however, great pains must be taken to see, 1st, that the word (noun or pronoun) is expressed which the participle is intended to modify; 2nd, that the participle is so placed as clearly to modify this word, and no other. The faults seen in the two following sentences arise from inattention to these points:—

1. **Turning** my eyes towards him, he began to play on the instrument in his hand.
2. A pocket-book was found by a boy **made** of leather.

Exercise 119.—Errors for Correction.—Correct the following sentences, giving reasons:—

1. Raising the window and looking out, busy crowds were seen in the street.
2. I could count *no less* than eleven cows seated at my window.
3. She walked with a lamp across the room still burning.
4. Hoping to hear from you soon, believe me, truly yours.
5. These islands are the residence of wild fowl composed of rock with a slight covering of herbage.
6. Examining the place, the intruder was found to be a tiny mouse.
7. The whole town may be seen sailing up the river.
8. The hotel was full of guests, badly built, and unprovided with means of escape.
9. Rising from these elevated table-lands, the traveller will see lofty ranges of granite mountains.
10. She ran towards the police station terrified and screaming murder in her night-dress.

LESSON XXXV.

THE VERB.—IRREGULARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

1. New Conjugation.—The regular verbs of the New Conjugation, as we have seen, form their past tense and their perfect participle alike, by adding **ed** or **d** to the stem: thus,

work, worked, worked; love, loved, loved.

But this **ed** or **d** makes an additional syllable only when the stem ends with a **t** or a **d**-sound, after which the **d** of the ending could not otherwise be heard. Thus, we say in one syllable

looked, hoped, raised, wished;

but in two

waited, skated, loaded, faded.

2. Moreover, when the pronunciation admits of it the **ed** or **d** is sounded like a **t**: thus,

worked, looked, hoped, wished, vexed, baked.

This has caused some verbs to have double forms in their past

tense and perfect participle (especially in the latter), viz., one in **ed** and another in **t**: thus,

**bless, blessed or blest; spoil, spoiled or spoilt;
drop, dropped or dropt.**

3. Some verbs of this conjugation are more or less irregular in other ways. Thus, some shorten the vowel of the stem either in spelling or in pronunciation, or in both, before adding **t**: thus,

mean, meant, meant; feel, felt, felt; sleep, slept, slept.

4. Others, somewhat after the manner of Old Conjugation verbs, take both a vowel and a vowel sound different from that of the stem: thus,

**say, said, said; buy, bought, bought; seek, sought, sought;
catch, caught, caught; tell, told, told;
sell, sold, sold.**

5. Lastly, quite a number that end in **t** or **d** make no change at all, but form their past tense and perfect participle like the stem: thus,

**put, put, put; cost, cost, cost; set, set, set; burst, burst, burst;
cast, cast, cast.**

It is to be borne in mind that, notwithstanding the above and some other irregularities that have not been mentioned, the fact that all these verbs (except those last given) add **ed** or **t** to the stem or to the stem altered, to form their past tense and perfect participle, stamps them as verbs of the New Conjugation.

N.B.—A list of all irregular verbs of this conjugation, with their principal parts, will be found at the end of this lesson.

6. **Old Conjugation.**—Verbs of the Old Conjugation, as we have seen, regularly change the vowel of the stem to form the past tense, and add to the stem **n** or **en** to form the perfect participle.

Considering the much smaller number of verbs in it, irregularities abound much more in the Old Conjugation than in the New. Indeed, no rule can be given as to what other vowel that of the stem is to be changed into to form the past tense, and the **n** or **en** of the perfect participle is often wanting.

For this reason it is usual in grammars to give the whole list of Old Conjugation verbs with their principal parts. This will be found at the end of this lesson, after the list just mentioned of irregular verbs of the New Conjugation.

7. A few verbs, namely,

have, be, do; can, may; shall, will, must, ought,

are mostly used along with infinitives or participles of other verbs to form verb-phrases or compound tenses, as they are sometimes called. Of these, **have** is an irregular verb of the New Conjugation (contracting its past tense and perfect participle **haved** into **had**),—**have, had, had**; and **do** is a more irregular verb of the Old conjugation—**do, did, done**. All the others are so irregular as scarcely to belong to either conjugation; and **can, may, shall, will, must** and **ought**, have neither infinitives nor participles of their own.

8. Verbs that help other verbs, in the way these do, to form verb-phrases, are called **AUXILIARY** verbs, that is, *helping* verbs; and as we shall want to use these verbs for this purpose in the next lesson, we here give their conjugation in full.

9. HAVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Have, Had, Had.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. I have ,	We have .	1. I had ,	We had .
2. Thou hast ,	You “	2. Thou hadst ,	You “
3. He has ,	They “	3. He had ,	They “

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
SING. AND PLUR.	SING. AND PLUR.
1, 2, 3. (If) I, thou, he, etc., have .	1, 2, 3. (If) I, thou, he, etc., had .

IMPERATIVE.

Have,

INFINITIVES.

(To) **have**,
Having,

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, **Having**.
Perfect, **Had**.

10. BE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Am, Was, Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. I am ,	We are .	1. I was ,	We were .
2. Thou art ,	You "	2. Thou wast ,	You "
3. He is ,	They "	3. He was ,	They "

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. (If) I be ,	If we be .	1. (If) I were ,	If we were .
2. (If) thou be ,	If you "	2. (If) thou wert ,	If you "
3. (If) he be ,	If they "	3. (If) he were ,	If they "

IMPERATIVE.

Be,

INFINITIVES.

(To) **be**,
Being,

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, **Being**.
Perfect, **Been**.

11. DO.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Do, Did, Done.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. I do ,	We do .	1. I did ,	We did .
2. Thou doest , or dost ,	You "	2. Thou didst ,	You "
3. He does ,	They "	3. He did ,	They "

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

SING. AND PLUR.

1, 2, 3. (If) I, thou, he, etc., **do**.

IMPERATIVE.

Do,

INFINITIVES.

(To) **do**,
Doing,*Past.*

SING. AND PLUR.

1, 2, 3. (If) I, thou, he, etc., **did**.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, **Doing**.
Perfect. **Done**.

12. CAN.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. I can ,	We can .	1. I could ,	We could .
2. Thou canst ,	You "	2. Thou couldst ,	You "
3. He can ,	They "	3. He could ,	They "

13. MAY.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. I may .	We may .	1. I might ,	We might .
2. Thou mayst ,	You "	2. Thou mightst ,	You "
3. He may ,	They "	3. He might ,	They "

14. SHALL.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. I shall ,	We shall .	1. I should ,	We should .
2. Thou shalt ,	You "	2. Thou shouldst ,	You "
3. He shall ,	They "	3. He should ,	They "

15. WILL.

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
1. I will ,	We will .	1. I would ,	We would .
2. Thou wilt ,	You "	2. Thou wouldst ,	You "
3. He will ,	They "	3. He would ,	They "

16. MUST.

Present (only).

SING.	PLUR.
1. I must ,	1. We must .
2. Thou must ,	2. You "
3. He must ,	3. They "

17. OUGHT.

Present (only).

SING.	PLUR.
1. I ought ,	1. We ought .
2. Thou oughtest ,	2. You "
3. He ought ,	3. They "

Exercise 120.—Give the principal parts, and tell the conjugation, of the following verbs:—

Be, do, have, see, drip, fade, feel, sleep, seek, spoil, toil, drive, tell, bind, buy, cut, dip, bless, catch, come, dig, knew, burn, fly, freeze, sell, fall, lead, lie, lay, ride, sew, sow, go, fight, begin, spill, hear, build.

Exercise 121.—By changing the participles or participle-phrases into clauses, change the following simple sentences into compound or complex ones:—

We saw the sinking ship.

Models.—1. COMPLEX SENTENCE.—*We saw the ship that was sinking.*

2. COMPOUND “ “ “ and it “

1. Brandishing their broadswords, they swept through the wavering troops. 2. Here come two firemen, bursting through the crowd. 3. Pursued by wolves, we spurred our horses to their utmost speed. 4. We saw him turning the corner. 5. The king, approving the plan, soon carried it out. 6. Cradled in the field, the army loved him. 7. Here he comes, bringing the lost one with him. 8. The general, having conducted a successful campaign, was highly honored on his return home. 9. Foreseeing his fate, he burst into cries of agony. 10. We live on, loathing our life. 11. Taking the cavalry with him, he crossed the river. 12. Beaten at one point, he made for another. 13. Being fatigued with our journey, we stopped to rest. 14. She came laughing. 15. 'Tis the car rattling o'er the stony street. 16. He rushed into the field, and, foremost fighting, fell.

17. And departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time.

VERBS OF THE NEW CONJUGATION THAT ARE IRREGULAR IN THEIR PRINCIPAL PARTS.

INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.	INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.
Bend	bent *	bent	Cost	cost	cost
Bereave	bereft *	bereft	Creep	crept	crept
Beseech	besought	besought	Cut	cut	cut
Bleed	bled	bled	Dare	durst *	dared
Breed	bred	bred	Deal	dealt	dealt
Bring	brought	brought	Dream	dreamt *	dreamt
Build	built *	built	Dwell	dwelt *	dwelt
Burn	burnt *	burnt	Feed	fed	fed
Burst	burst	burst	Feel	felt	felt
Buy	bought	bought	Flee	fled	fled
Cast	cast	cast	Gild	gilt *	gilt
Catch	caught	caught	Gird	girt *	girt
Cleave, to	clave *	cleaved	Have	had	had
adhere			Hear	heard	heard
Clothe	clad *	clad	Hit	hit	hit

* Verbs to which an asterisk is attached sometimes form their past tense and perfect participle in **ed**.

INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.	INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.
Hurt	hurt	hurt	Send	sent	sent
Keep	kept	kept	Set	set	set
Kneel	knelt	knelt	Shed	shed	shed
Knit	knit *	knit	Shoe	shod	shod
Lead	led	led	Shoot	shot	shot
Lean	leant *	leant	Shut	shut	shut
Leap	leapt *	leapt	Sleep	slept	slept
Learn	learnt *	learnt	Smell	smelt *	smelt
Leave	left	left	Speed	sped	sped
Lend	lent	lent	Spell	spelt *	spelt
Let	let	let	Spend	spent	spent
Lose	lost	lost	Spill	spilt *	spilt
Make	made	made	Spit	spit	spit
Mean	meant	meant	Split	split	split
Meet	met	met	Spoil	spoilt *	spoilt
Pay	paid	paid	Spread	spread	spread
Pen, to	pent *	pent	Sweat	sweat	sweat
<i>enclose</i>			Sweep	swept	swept
Put	put	put	Teach	taught	taught
Quit	quit *	quit	Tell	told	told
Read	read	read	Think	thought	thought
Rend	rent	rent	Thrust	thrust	thrust
Rid	rid	rid	Weep	wept	wept
Say	said	said	Wet	wet *	wet
Seek	sought	sought	Whet	whet *	whet
Sell	sold	sold	Work	wrought *	wrought

VERBS OF THE OLD CONJUGATION.

INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.	INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.
Abide	abode	abode	Cleave, to	clove	cloven
Am	was	been	<i>split</i>		
Arise	arose	arisen	Cling	clung	clung
Awake	awoke N*	awaked	Come	came	come
Bear	bore, bare	{ borne born	Crow	crew N	crowed
Beat	beat	beaten	Dig	dug N	dug N
Begin	began	begun	Do	did	done
Bid	bade, bid	bidden	Draw	drew	drawn
Bind	bound	bound	Drive	drove	driven
Bite	bit	bitten, bit	Drink	drank	drunk
Blow	blew	blown	Eat	eat, ate	eaten
Break	broke	broken	Fall	fell	fallen
Chide	chid	chidden	Fight	fought	fought
Choose	chose	chosen	Find	found	found
			Fling	flung	flung

* Verbs to which an asterisk is attached sometimes form their past tense and perfect participle in **ed**.

N Verbs which follow the New as well as the Old conjugation are marked with the letter **N**. Thus the past tense of **awake** is either **awoke** or **awaked**.

PER. PAR.	INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.	INFIN.	P'T TENSE.	PER. PAR.
ent	Fly	flew	flown	Speak	spoke	spoken
et	Forget	forgot	{ forgotten	Spin	spun	spun
hed			{ forgot	Spring	sprang	sprung
hod	Forsake	forsook	forsaken	Stand	stood	stood
hot	Freeze	froze	frozen	Steal	stole	stolen
hut	Get	got	got, gotten	Stick	stuck	stuck
lept	Give	gave	given	Sting	stung	stung
umelt	Go	went	gone	Stink	stank	stunk
ped	Grind	ground	ground	Strew	strewed	{ strewn } ^N
spelt	Grow	grew	grown			{ strown }
spent	Hang	hung ^N	hung ^N	Stride	strode	stridden
spilt	Hide	hid	hidden, hid	Strike	struck	{ struck
spit	Hold	held	held			{ stricken
split	Know	knew	known	String	strung	strung
spoilt	Lie	lay	lain	Strive	strove	striven
spread	Meet	met	met	Swear	swore	sworn
sweat	Mow	mowed	mown	Swim	swam	swum
swept	Ride	rode	ridden	Swing	swung	swung
taught	Ring	rang	rung	Take	took	taken
told	Rise	rose	risen	Tear	tore	torn
thought	Run	ran	run	Thrive	throve ^N	thriven ^N
thrust	See	saw	seen	Throw	threw	thrown
wep	Shake	shook	shaken	Tread	trod	trodden
wet	Shear	sheared	shorn ^N	Wax	waxed	waxen ^N
whet	Shine	shone ^N	shone ^N	Wear	wore	worn
wrought	Show	showed	shown ^N	Weave	wove	woven
	Shrink	shrank	shrunk	Win	won	won
	Sing	sang	sung	Wind	wound	wound
	Sink	sank	{ sunk	Wring	wrung	wrung
			{ sunken	Write	wrote	written
	Sit	sat	sat			
	Slay	slew	slain			
	Slide	slid	slidden			
	Sling	slung	slung			
	Slink	slunk	slunk			
	Slit	slit	slit			
	Smite	smote	smitten			
	Sow	sowed	sown ^N			

LIST OF DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Can	could
May	might
Must	must
Ought	ought
Shall	should
Will	would

^N Verbs which follow the New as well as the Old conjugation are marked with the letter ^N. Thus the past tense of *awake* is either *awoke* or *awaked*.

LESSON XXXVI.

THE VERB.—TENSE.—VERB-PHRASES.

1. It has already been stated (par. 2, Lesson XXXII.) that we have inflected forms of the verb to express a difference between time present and time past only, and that if we wish to express that an act took place in any other time than these, we must use compound forms of the verb, or *verb-phrases*, as they are called. We will now show how this is done.

2. Every action, state, etc., that can be asserted by a verb, must take place in time **present**, in time **past**, or in time **to come**. There are, therefore, three main tenses, namely,

the **present** the **past**, and the **future**.

3. To express a difference between time present and time past we change the form of the verb as shown in the foregoing models; but to express future time we must have recourse to the helping verbs **shall** and **will**, and by means of these form verb-phrases. Thus, if we want to express, for instance, that the action of **praising** or **writing** is to be done in time to come, we put **shall** or **will** before the root-infinitive (dropping the **to**), and say—

SINGULAR.

I shall praise, write.
Thou wilt “ “
He will “ “

PLURAL.

We shall praise, write.
You will “ “
They will “ “

And this compound form, or verbal-phrase, since it signifies *future* action, we call a **FUTURE** tense.

4. To decide whether **shall** or **will** is the right auxiliary to use, observe that to denote simply something that is going to

take place, we use **shall** in the *first person, singular and plural*, and **will** in the *second and third*: thus,

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall go. | 1. We shall go. |
| 2. Thou wilt go. | 2. You will go. |
| 3. He will go. | 3. They will go. |

5. But, besides simple futurity, the same auxiliaries will denote the speaker's promise, or, when emphatic, his determination. We then reverse the above, and use **will** for the *first person*, and **shall** for the *second and third*: thus,

Will in first person,—

(Promise.)—I **will** see (*i.e.*, I promise to see) **that he does so**.

(Determination.)—I **will** go (*i.e.*, I am determined to go), **what-ever may oppose**.

Shall in second and third,—

(Promise.)—You **shall** have it. It **shall** be there; rely on me for that.

(Determination.)—You **shall** go; I **exact** it of you.

He **shall** go, in spite of him and you.

6. Hence, summing up as rules what we have here learned about **shall** and **will**, we may say:

To denote futurity simply, use shall in the first person and will in the second and third.

To denote the speaker's promise or determination, use will in the first person and shall in the second and third.

7. But in speaking of an action, we often want to express not only the *time* of its taking place, but also whether it was going on (and therefore incomplete or imperfect), or was finished (and therefore complete or perfect) at the time indicated.

Now, the simple forms of the verb, in either the present or the past tenses, do not express completeness of action; nor yet does

the verb-phrase which we call a future tense; for the forms **I praise, I praised, I shall praise**, for instance, rather give us the idea that the action is unfinished, and therefore incomplete or imperfect at the **present, past, and future** time. And if we wish to express the completeness or perfectness of the action at these times, we must have recourse to another helping verb, **have**.

If we use of this verb the present tense **have**, the past **had**, and the future **shall have**, and put with them the perfect participle **praised**, we form three other so-called tenses by which we can express the perfectness of the action in **present, past, and future** time respectively: thus,

I have praised expresses the perfectness of the action at the **present** time, and may be called a **PRESENT PERFECT** tense.

I had praised expresses the perfectness of the action at some time in the **past**, and may be called a **PAST PERFECT** tense.

I shall have praised expresses that the action will be perfect at some time in the **future**, and may be called a **FUTURE PERFECT** tense.

8. In this way each of the three *main* tenses is split into two tenses, one to express incomplete or imperfect action, and the other to express complete or perfect action: thus,

MAIN TENSES.

TENSES.

Present into { 1. **Present** (Imperfect), *e.g.*, I praise,
2. (Present) **Perfect**, *e.g.*, I have praised.

Past into { 1. **Past** (Imperfect), *e.g.*, I praised,
2. **Past Perfect**, *e.g.*, I had praised.

Future into { 1. **Future** (Imperfect), *e.g.*, I shall praise,
2. **Future Perfect**, *e.g.*, I shall have praised.

9. In naming these six tenses, however, the words we have here printed in parentheses are omitted for the sake of shortness, and the **past perfect** is usually called the **PLUPERFECT** (which is intended to mean the same thing).

If, now, using the verb **praise** in the first person singular, we give a collected view of the tenses with their usual names and in their usual order, it will be as follows:—

PRESENT.	I praise,
PAST.	I praised,
PERFECT.	I have praised,
PLUPERFECT.	I had praised,
FUTURE.	I shall praise,
FUTURE PERFECT.	I shall have praised.

Exercise 122.—Give the first person singular in each of the six tenses of the verbs—*love, wish, work, walk, sleep, keep, write, give, speak, tell, see, and rise.*

LESSON XXXVII.

THE VERB.—OTHER VERB-PHRASES.

1. Progressive Verb-phrases.—Besides the verb-phrases, spoken of in the last lesson, that help to distinguish the tense or time of an action, there are other verb-phrases, formed by using other auxiliary verbs, that enable us to express other distinctions. For, if we join the simple and compound forms of the auxiliary verb **be** (par. 10, Lesson XXXV.) to the *imperfect participle* of any verb, we can represent the action of that verb as going on, or in *progress*, at the time indicated by any of our six tenses: thus,

PRESENT.	I am giving,
PAST.	I was giving,
PERFECT.	I have been giving,
PLUPERFECT.	I had been giving,
FUTURE.	I shall be giving,
FUTURE PERFECT.	I shall have been giving.

Because these verb-phrases denote that the action of the verb is in *progress* at the time indicated, they make what are called the **PROGRESSIVE** forms of the verb.

2. Emphatic Verb-phrases.—Again, by joining the present and past tenses (only) of the auxiliary verb **do** to the *root-infinitive* of any verb, we form verb-phrases that enable us to render more positive or *emphatic* the assertion made by that verb: thus,

PRESENT. I **do give**. PAST. I **did give**.

Because these verb-phrases, which are limited to the present and past tenses, render the assertion *emphatic*, they make what are called the **EMPHATIC** forms of the verb.

Notice that the same verbs **do** and **did** are used also by us in asking a question, and in making denials: thus,

Do I give? Did he give? I do not give; He did not give;

but in such interrogative and negative sentences, **do** and **did** do not denote emphasis.

3. Potential Verb-phrases.—Although, as was stated in Lesson XXXII., we have inflectional forms for those modes only of expressing the action of the verb, which we called the indicative, the subjunctive, and the imperative moods; yet the action of the verb is sometimes expressed in dependent sentences by verb-phrases in ways that have the nature of moods: as when we say

I **may** (or **can**) **go** if I like.

I **might** (or **could**) **go** if I liked.

These verb-phrases are formed by joining the present and past tenses of the auxiliary verbs **may** and **can** to the *root-infinitive* of any verb. They express that an action is possible from the subject *having power* to perform it. They are, therefore, called the *present* and *past* **POTENTIAL** verb-phrases of the verb to which these auxiliaries are joined. (*Potential* means *having power*.)

4. Obligative Verb-phrases.—Again, other verb-phrases, that have the nature of a mood, express an obligation on the part of the subject to do a certain act: as when we say

I **must** } **give**, if they are in want.
I **ought to** }

They are formed, as is seen, by joining the *root-infinitive* to the

auxiliary verbs **must** and **ought**, and since these phrases imply *obligation*, they are called the *OBLIGATIVE* verb-phrases of the verbs to which these auxiliaries are joined.

5. The difference between **may** and **can** is chiefly this: that **may** expresses possibility in the most general way, whereas **can** expresses possibility that depends on the will or the ability of the subject: thus, I **may** go means I have the power to go because there is nothing to hinder my going; I **can** go means I have in myself the power to go if I like to exert it.

The difference between **must** and **ought (to)** is: that **must** expresses necessity, *i.e.*, obligation which the subject is forced to fulfil; whereas **ought (to)** expresses duty, *i.e.*, obligation which the subject may or may not fulfil: thus, I **must** give means something obliges me to give; I **ought to give** means it is my duty to give.

6. *Conditional Verb-phrases.*—Once more, other verb-phrases, that also have the nature of a mood, express the action of the verb as depending on some condition: as when we say

I **should** go if I could get away;

I **would** give if I had the means.

They are formed by joining the root-infinitive of any verb to **should** and **would**—the past tenses of **shall** and **will**. And these verb-phrases, since they imply a *condition*, are called the *CONDITIONAL* verb-phrases of the verb to which these auxiliaries are joined.

It is important to note that these verbs with an infinitive are not always to be regarded as verb-phrases with the nature of moods. Sometimes they have as independent a meaning and character as other verbs which have an infinitive dependent on them: thus,

You **can** either go or stay.

They **may** improve before we return.

We **must** begin as soon as it gets dark.

He **would** start, *i.e.*, was determined to start.

I **could** not (*i.e.*, was not able to) stop him.

7. *Imperative Verb-phrase.*—In par. 8, Lesson XXXII., it was mentioned that a command can be given only to a *second* person who is always present to the person giving the command. But we have a verb-phrase which is much used to intimate a wish or direction in the *third* person and even in the *first*. It is formed of the verb **let**, followed by a pronoun or noun in the objective

case, and that followed by the root-infinitive of any verb: thus,

Let me (or us) **give**. **Let him** (her, it or them) **give**.

Let the messenger set out at once.

Since this form seems to supply the place of an imperative mood in the first and third persons, it may properly be called an IMPERATIVE verb-phrase.

8. With regard to the compound forms mentioned in this lesson, let it be observed that in what we called the EMPHATIC form of the verb, viz.: **I do praise**, **I did praise**, the words **do**, **dost**, **does** (present), and **did**, **didst** (past), are the real verbs of the phrases; and that **praise** is the root-infinitive, and is the object of the transitive verb **do**. Thus, **I do praise** strictly means **I do or perform an act of praising**.

We might properly enough always analyze and parse in this manner the phrases which constitute this form. But since such phrases are used in making sentences just as tenses composed of simple verbs are used, we find it convenient not to analyze them, but to treat them as if they were simple tenses. We therefore call the phrases **I do praise**, **I did praise**, etc., the EMPHATIC PRESENT and PAST of the verb **praise**.

9. So, too, in the "progressive form" made by using the imperfect participle of any verb after the several parts of the verb **be**; as,

I am giving, **He was giving**,

the participle **giving** has the value of a predicate adjective (Lesson X.), modifying the subject of the auxiliary verb **be**, just as the predicate adjectives **generous** and **liberal** modify **I** and **he** in

I am generous, **He was liberal**.

And in this way we might always break up these phrases; but, as before, it is more convenient to treat them as if they were simple tenses; we therefore call these phrases the PROGRESSIVE forms of the verb **give**.

10. Again, when we make our *future* tense by the help of **shall** and **will**, and say, **I shall praise**, **he will write**, etc., the words **praise** and **write** are root-infinitives, governed in the objective case by the transitive verbs **shall** and **will**. For **shall** meant

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originally **owe**, **be under obligation**, and **will** meant **wish**, **resolve**, **determine**. So that **I shall praise**, **he will write**, really signify

I owe, **I am bound**, to praise;

He intends, **he is determined**, to write.

But although the future is in this way compounded of a (transitive) verb and an infinitive (object), it is nevertheless treated as if it were a simple tense.

The same explanation applies to the *conditional* forms made by adding the root-infinitive to **should** and **would**, the past tenses of **shall** and **will**. Thus, **I should praise** signifies **I owed**, **was bound**, to praise; and **He would write** signifies **He intended**, **was resolved**, to write.

11. Lastly, the verb that is joined to the auxiliaries **may**, **can**, **must** and **ought**, to make the *potential* and *obligative* forms, is easily seen to be an infinitive, if we substitute the equivalents of these auxiliaries, and say, for instance, **I am permitted**, **am able**, **am compelled**, **am in duty bound**, to write. These forms, too, though thus compounded, are best treated as simple forms.

Exercise 123.—Write out in full, (1) the progressive, (2) the emphatic, (3) the potential, (4) the obligative, (5) the conditional—forms of the verbs *look*, *think*, *tell* and *say*.

Exercise 124.—Errors for Correction.—Correct the following sentences, giving reasons where you can:—

CAUTIONS.—Never say, **Can I (we) go?** **Will I (we) go?** for the first of these questions means **Am I able to go?** and the second means **Do I intend to go?** and of these facts no one can judge so well as yourself. But say, **May I go?** i.e., **Am I permitted to go?** and **Shall I go?** i.e., **Do you wish me to go?**

1. If you do this, I will be under a great obligation to you 2. Can I speak to you? Can we leave our seats? 3. Will we see your friend when we come? 4. I will be under the necessity of asking for it. 5. Where will you be if I come? I will be *to home* 6. If I had saved my money years ago, I would not have been in this condition now. 7. Will I tell him you wants him if I sees him? 8. When will you be able to pay me back? 9. The master determined that the boys would not play in school 10. How will you proceed in the matter? 11. If we cannot go farther what will we do? 12. The teacher hoped that we would all enjoy ourselves. 13. You was too young, else you should have taken the prize. 14. If you'd *have* ran all the way, you'd have been in time 15. Will we be late at school? If so, we will lose our places. 16. Have you eat your dinner as quick as that? 17. I shall have great pleasure in accepting your invitation 18. A person having accidentally fallen into a pond cried out "**I will be drowned; I will be drowned; and nobody shall help me.**"

LESSON XXXVIII.

THE VERB.—OTHER TENSE AND PROGRESSIVE FORMS.—SCHEME OF CONJUGATION.

1. **Tense Forms.**—Not only does the verb **have** help to form the perfect and pluperfect tenses, indicative mood, as shown in par. 7, Lesson XXXVI., but this same auxiliary helps to form the same tenses of the subjunctive mood, and of those other forms of the verb which we called potential, obligative, and conditional verb-phrases: thus,

Subjunctive mood,—

PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

If I have given,

If I had given.

Potential verb-phrase,—

PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

I may or can have given,

I might or could have given.

Obligative verb-phrase,—

PERFECT.

I must or ought to have given.

Conditional verb-phrase,—

PERFECT.

I should or would have given.

Participle,—

PERFECT (Active).

Having given.

PERFECT (Passive).

Having been given.

Infinitive,—

PERFECT.

To have given.

2. **Progressive Forms.**—Again, not only does the verb **be** help to make the progressive form of each tense of the indicative

mood, as shown in par. 1, Lesson XXXVII., but it helps also to make the progressive form of the several tenses of the subjunctive mood, and of the phrases: thus,

Subjunctive mood,—

PRESENT.	If I be giving,
PAST.	If I were giving,
PERFECT.	If I have been giving,
PLUPERFECT.	If I had been giving.

Potential verb-phrase,—

PRESENT.	I may or can be giving,
PAST.	I might or could be giving,
PERFECT.	I may have or can have been giving,
PLUPERFECT.	I might have or could have been giving.

Obligative verb-phrase,—

PRESENT.	I must or ought to be giving,
PERFECT.	I must or ought to have been giving.

Conditional verb-phrase,—

PRESENT.	I should or would be giving,
PERFECT.	I should or would have been giving.

Imperative mood,—

PRESENT.	Be giving.
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Infinitive,—

PRESENT.	(To) Be giving,
PERFECT.	(To) Have been giving.

Participle,—

PERFECT (Active).	Having been giving,
PERFECT (Passive).	Being given.

3. Scheme of Conjugation.—If, now, we put all the verbal forms we have so far learned about into one scheme, so as to present them at one view, it will be as follows:—

NOTE TO TEACHER.—The original and simple forms of the verb are put in small capitals to distinguish them from the phrase forms. It has not been thought necessary to give

more of each tense than the first person singular, and since the four tenses of the subjunctive do not differ in form or name from the first four tenses of the indicative, they have been omitted for brevity's sake.

STEM.

GIVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Give, Gave, Given.

	<i>Present.</i>	
Simple.	Emphatic.	Progressive.
GIVE	do give	am giving
	<i>Past.</i>	
GAVE	did give	was giving
	<i>Perfect.</i>	Progressive.
Simple.		
have given	have been giving	
	<i>Pluperfect.</i>	
had given	had been giving	
	<i>Future.</i>	
shall or will give	shall or will be giving	
	<i>Future Perfect.</i>	
shall or will have given	shall or will have been giving	
	<i>Conditional.</i>	
should or would give	should or would be giving	
	<i>Conditional Perfect.</i>	
should or would have given	should or would have been giving	
	<i>Potential.</i>	
may or can give	may or can be giving	
	<i>Potential Past.</i>	
might or could give	might or could be giving	
	<i>Potential Perfect.</i>	
may or can have given	may or can have been giving	
	<i>Potential Pluperfect.</i>	
might or could have given	might or could have been giving	

Obligative.

must or ought to give must or ought to be giving

Obligative Perfect.

must or ought to have given must or ought to have been giving

Imperative.

Simple.

Emphatic.

Progressive.

GIVE

do give**be giving***Phrasal Imperative.*

let (me, etc.) give do let (me, etc.) give let (me, etc.) be giving

*Infinitive.***(to) GIVE****(to) be giving***Infinitive Perfect.***(to) have given****(to) have been giving***Imperfect Participle and Gerund.*

GIVING.

Perfect Active Participle and Gerund.

Simple.

Progressive.

having given**having been giving***Perfect Participle.*

GIVEN

being given

Exercise 125.—(1) Tell the form and the tense of each of the verbs in the following sentences; (2) Complete the tense by giving each person and number of it:—

1. I am helping my mother. 2. He was hurting me. 3. The teacher praised the diligent pupil. 4. Everyone esteems an honest man. 5. We shall go when we have finished our work. 6. Success will crown his efforts. 7. The rising moon has hid the stars. 8. In her veins the red river is fast running high. 9. We were standing near when the accident happened. 10. Behind the clouds is the sun still shining. 11. He has been feigning sickness. 12. Home they brought her warrior dead. 13. Snow had been falling all the night. 14. I wish we could hear the Inchcape Bell. 15. We shall have finished our practice when you call. 16. Trust in God, and do the right. 17. He could easily have given ten dollars, and he ought to have given five at least. 18. To err is human, to forgive divine. 19. Let me hear my Father's voice.

20. Alas! they had been friends in youth,
But whispering tongues can poison truth.

21. The dew was falling fast, the stars began to blink;
I heard a voice; it said, "Drink, pretty creature, drink!"

LESSON XXXIX.

THE VERB.—PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

1. It has already been explained (see Lesson XIX.) that a *transitive* verb is one that requires to be completed by an object; as,

He **dig**s the garden.

The fisherman **was mending** his nets.

And that an *intransitive* verb is one that does not require to be completed by an object; as,

The child **kneels**. Boys **sleep** soundly.

2. Now, when the verb of a sentence is transitive, the assertion may be made in either of two ways. Compare, for instance, the following:

The boy **caught** a fish.

A fish **was caught** by the boy.

It will be seen that these two sentences state the same fact; the only difference is in the form or manner of stating it. And it will be noticed that this difference consists in taking the word **fish**, which is the *object* in the first sentence, and making it the *subject* of the second sentence, and then slightly altering the form of the verb.

The first sentence brings out prominently the idea that the subject boy **was acting**, *i.e.*, doing something; the second sentence that the subject fish **endured** or **suffered** the something done. The form that the verb must take will depend, then, upon whether the subject is to be represented as **acting**, or as **suffering** an action.

3. Now, all through the scheme of conjugation given in the last lesson, the subject, it will be seen, is represented as acting, *i.e.*, as doing the action expressed by the verb. That scheme may, therefore, be called the **ACTIVE CONJUGATION**. To represent

the subject, not as *doing* the action expressed by the verb, but as *enduring* or *suffering* it, we use a set of verb-phrases made by putting the perfect, *i.e.*, the passive participle of any transitive verb, after the various forms, simple and compound, of the verb **be**. The set of verb-phrases thus formed is called, to distinguish it from the other, the **PASSIVE CONJUGATION**; for *passive*, as was shown, means *enduring* or *suffering*. Thus, using the active conjugation, we say

(*Present tense*), He gives the money;

using the passive conjugation, *i.e.*, first taking the object **money** and making it the subject, then putting the perfect or passive participle of the verb, namely, **given**, after that tense of the verb **be** that corresponds to the tense of **give**, namely, the present, we say

The money is given by him.

Again, active conjugation, we say

(*Past tense*), He gave the money;

passive conjugation,

The money was given by him.

Active conjugation,

(*Perfect tense*), He has given the money;

passive conjugation,

The money has been given by him;

and so on through all the other tenses.

4. By using the passive, instead of the active, conjugation, we are able to give greater variety to our language, and to represent the enduring of an action without mentioning the actor. Indeed, the actor is omitted whenever (1) we are ignorant of him, or (2) wish to conceal him, or (3) think it unimportant to mention him. Thus, omitting the actor, we may say

The money is given. The money was given.

The money has been given.

5. The passive conjugation does not admit of emphatic verb-phrases (except in the phrasal-imperative), for the reason that the verb **be**, the auxiliary of the passive, admits of none. Thus, we may say

He is, but not, **He does be**; **He was**, but not, **He did be**.

Hence, too, we may not say

The money **does be given**; nor, The money **did be given**.

Moreover, the passive conjugation has progressive forms for the present and past tenses only.

6. **Passive Conjugation.**—If now we give a scheme of the Passive Conjugation, corresponding to that of the Active, it will be as follows:—

Simple.

I am loved,

I was loved,

LOVE.

Present.

Past.

Perfect.

I have been loved.

Pluperfect.

I had been loved.

Future.

I shall or will be loved.

Future Perfect.

I shall or will have been loved.

Conditional.

I should or would be loved.

Conditional Perfect.

I should or would have been loved.

Potential.

I may or can be loved.

Potential Past.

I might or could be loved.

Progressive.

I am being loved.

I was being loved.

*Potential Perfect.***I may or can have been loved.***Potential Pluperfect.***I might or could have been loved.***Obligative.***I must or ought to be loved.***Obligative Perfect.***I must or ought to have been loved.***Imperative.***Be loved.***Phrasal Imperative.***Let (me, etc.) be loved,****Do let (me, etc.) be loved.***Infinitive.***(To) be loved.***Infinitive Perfect.***(To) have been loved.***Perfect Participle.***LOVED.****Having been loved.****Being loved,**

7. Great care must be taken to distinguish the Passive Conjugation from the Progressive Form of the Active. Young pupils are liable to confound these, for the reason that they both use the verb **be** as an auxiliary. It will be noticed that the Passive Conjugation uses with the verb **be** the Perfect Participle, while the Progressive Form of the Active uses with the verb **be** the Imperfect Participle: thus,

Passive Conjugation, I am loved. (Perf. Part.)

Progressive Form of Active, I am loving. (Imp. Part.)

Exercise 126.—In the following sentences, say which verbs belong to the Passive Conjugation, and which are in the Progressive Form of the Active:—

1. I am helping. 2. I am helped. 3. He was hurting me. 4. He was hurt.
5. He is scaling the mountain. 6. The mountain is seldom scaled.
7. Thou art defied. 8. Thou art defying. 9. Time is passing.
10. We were writing at the time. 11. The letters were written at the time.
12. They are finishing their lessons. 13. Their lessons are finished.
14. The architect has been changing the plans. 15. The plans have been

changed. 16. The shades of night are falling fast. 17. Behind the clouds is the sun still shining. 18. The sun was reddening the clouds of morn. 19. In her veins the red river is fast running high. 20. The pass was filled with their serried power.

Exercise 127.—1. Say whether the verbs (or verb-phrases) of the following sentences belong to the Active or to the Passive Conjugation. 2. Change the active into the passive conjugation, or the passive into the active, as the case may be:—

1. The teacher praises the diligent scholar. 2. Everyone esteems an honest man. 3. The son was taught by his father. 4. Success crowned his efforts. 5. The British Empire is ruled by the Queen. 6. He has been feigning sickness. 7. Tea is imported from China. 8. Home they brought her warrior dead. 9. Sorrow is lightened by sympathy. 10. Stone walls do not a prison make. 11. We buried him darkly at dead of night. 12. All your prayers are heard in heaven. 13. The rising moon has hid the stars. 14. Monster! by thee my child's devoured.

15. Now he stirred their souls to passion,
Now he melted them to pity.

16. We carved not a line, we raised not a stone,
But left him alone in his glory.

Parsing.—In parsing a verb we have first to say whether it is a simple verb or a verb-phrase. If it is a verb-phrase, it must be taken apart into the auxiliary and the infinitive or participle that goes with this to make up the phrase. We have next to say whether the verb is transitive or intransitive, then of which conjugation; the principal parts are then to be given; then the mood and tense are to be stated, and the tense may be inflected in full. Finally the number and person must be given, and the subject-nominative with which (in respect to number and person) the verb agrees.

REMARK.—Under the name verb infinitives and participles are not included, except as they are used along with auxiliaries to form verb-phrases.

You gave us our orders; we listened, and we shall not forget them.

Model 1. — <i>gave,</i>	a verb, transitive; Old Conjugation; principal parts, give, gave, given ; indicative mood; past tense; inflected, I gave, thou gavest, he gave, we, you, they gave ; second person; plural; to agree with its subject the pronoun <i>you</i> .
<i>listened,</i>	a verb, intransitive; New Conjugation; principal parts, listen, listened, listened ; past tense; indicative mood; first person; plural; to agree with its subject the pronoun <i>we</i> .

shall forget, a verb-phrase—made up of the auxiliary *shall* and the infinitive *forget*—transitive; Old Conjugation; principal parts, *forget*, *forgot*, *forgotten*; future tense; indicative mood; first person; plural; to agree with its subject *we*.

He must have been suffering intensely, as his leg was broken.

Model 2.—*must have been suffering*, a verb-phrase, made up of the auxiliary *must have been* and the present participle *suffering*, the two composing together the progressive form of the obligative perfect of the verb *suffer*. It is intransitive, etc., etc.

was broken, a passive verb-phrase, composed of the auxiliary *was* and the perfect participle *broken*. It is transitive, etc., etc.

Exercise 128.—Parse, according to the above models, the verbs in the two last exercises.

LESSON XL.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Prepositions and conjunctions have no variation of form at all, of the kind we have called inflection. They are called, therefore, the UNINFLECTED parts of speech. A few adverbs, which are either adjectives used also as adverbs, or words resembling such adjectives, have a comparison like that of the adjective: thus,

**much, more, most; well, better, best;
soon, sooner, soonest; ill, worse, worst.**

2. As has just been said, many words that are adjectives in form are used adverbially. For example—

The lane is long (adj.).	He has long (adv.) been ill.
The far (adj.) meadow.	He is far (adv.) on his way.
A late (adj.) hour.	They arrived late (adv.).

Such double use, however, can give no trouble if we remember that the part of speech a word is depends on the office that it fills in the sentence.

3. Parsing.—An adverb is parsed by telling the kind, the degree (if it be compared), and saying what verb, adjective, or adverb, it modifies.

If you work so hard to-day, to-morrow you will be at home very ill.

Model.—*so*, an adverb of degree; modifying the adverb *hard*.
hard, an adverb of manner; positive degree; modifying the verb *work*.
to-day, an adverb of time; modifying the verb *work*.
to-morrow, an adverb of time; modifying the predicate-phrase *will be ill*.
at home, an adverb of place; modifying the predicate-phrase *will be ill*.
very, an adverb of degree; modifying the predicate adjective *ill*.

Exercise 129.—Parse, according to the foregoing model, the adverbs found in the following sentences:—

1. The poor are always amongst us. 2. He recently came back. 3. I lost my thimble yesterday, and found it to-day. 4. She bore her sufferings very patiently. 5. I often meet your friend. 6. This is good enough. 7. She is seldom punctual. 8. I seldom saw such a storm; it raged furiously. 9. We were greatly in danger. 10. The idle boy is generally mischievous. 11. Flowers soon fade. 12. My canary sings beautifully. 13. I never before saw such bad writing. 14. You are greatly to blame, for you are old enough to know better. 15. I was very sorry to find my friend so ill; he is much better to-day. 16. Where did you see her?

Exercise 130.—Express the sense of each of the following adverbs, or adverb phrases, by an adverb clause, and then use the clause in a complex sentence of your own making: thus,

In the moonlight.

Model.—1. Phrase changed into clause,—*While the moon was shining.*
 2. Clause used in complex sentence,—*While the moon was shining we could see our path.*

1. At sunrise. 2. In youth. 3. After school. 4. At the cross-roads. 5. Deliberately. 6. Unknowingly. 7. After sundown. 8. In his presence. 9. With your consent. 10. In daylight. 11. With my friend. 12. Before church.

When several adverb clauses may be used, select the one that makes the best sense and sound.

Exercise 131.—Express, in as many different ways as you can, the ideas contained in the *predicates* of the following sentences: thus,

He suffered patiently.

Model.—1. *He suffered with patience.*

2. “ *without complaining.*

3. *He bore his sufferings in a patient manner.*

4. “ “ *without a murmur.*

5. *In his sufferings he never murmured.*

1. The bird builds its nest with great skill. 2. With all speed he sent off a telegram. 3. The baby sleeps peacefully. 4. Robins rise at dawn. 5. The crews cheered lustily. 6. He came with reluctance. 7. She at all times conducts herself properly. 8. The procession moved forward with solemnity.

Exercise 132.—Errors for Correction.—Correct all errors in the following, and give reasons:—

CAUTIONS.—1. Never use the article *a* after such words as *sort* or *kind*. Say, What kind of house? not, What kind of a house? etc. 2. Never use the superlative when only two things are compared. Say, She is the younger of the two; not, the youngest. 3. Use *many* with reference to things counted; *much* with reference to things measured or weighed; as, many cattle, much wheat or pork. 4. Use *less* with reference to size or bulk; *fewer* with reference to number; as, less straw, fewer apples,

1. You walk too rapid; go along slow, then we shall do it quite easy. 2. She looked so sweetly, and sang so lovely and correct. 3. My dog is the comicallest fellow you ever seen. 4. What kind of a machine do you call that? 5. I like these kind of bouquets—how sweetly the mignonette smells in it. 6. During this extreme bad weather there *has* been many colds caught. 7. Not much buffalo are now seen along the track of the C. P. R. 8. The horse and elephant are both strong, but the elephant is much the strongest of the two. 9. The norman was an *elder* house than the plantagenet. 10. Toronto has a larger population *than any city* in Ont. 11. Don't *forget* to fasten it on good and strong. 12. In the proper distribution of adverbs the ear carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense. 13. Whenever I try *and* improve I always find I can do it. 14. Every person whatever be their station are bound by the laws of morality. 15. The winter has not been *as* severe as we expected it to be. 16. They came agreeable to their promise and behaved their selves suitable to the occasion. 17. I do wish them boys would act quiet. 18. There are less bushels of wheat to the acre this year than last. 19. Scarce had the audience went, but the building took fire. 20. A fondness for show is, of all *other* follies, the most vain. 21. Iron is more useful than all the metals.

4. To use the same words too frequently, and to form their sentences too much after one fashion, are very common faults of young writers. Many of the previous exercises in composition were framed with a view to correct these faults, by showing how the place of words, phrases and

clauses may be varied without altering the sense, and how the same sense may be conveyed by the use of different words or of different constructions.

Additional practice of this kind may be obtained, 1st, by turning passages of poetry into the order of prose, using the same words, or nearly so; 2nd, by taking the ideas only from the poetry and expressing them by different words, as far as possible, in prose. The first is called **TRANSPOSING POETRY**, and the second **PARAPHRASING POETRY**. Before either can be done, and especially before the second can be done, the meaning of the poetry must be thoroughly understood.

EXAMPLES.

Near yonder copse where once the garden smiled,
And still where many a garden flower grows wild,
There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
The village preacher's modest mansion rose.
A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year.

Transposed.—The modest mansion of the village preacher rose near yonder copse, where the garden once smiled, where many a garden flower still grows wild, [and] where a few torn shrubs [still] disclose the place. He was a man who was dear to all the country, and who, with forty pounds a year, was passing rich.

Paraphrased.—The humble abode of the village preacher used to stand on the border of yonder wood, in that very spot where many garden flowers still grow wild, and where a few shrubs, rough and broken, still point out the place where his garden once bloomed. This preacher was a man highly esteemed by the whole neighborhood, and, although his salary was only forty pounds a year, he was considered more than rich.

Exercise 133.—First transpose and then paraphrase the following poetical extracts. Other passages may be selected by the teacher from the Readers or elsewhere:—

1. On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay th' untrodden snow,
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser rolling rapidly.
2. Hope, like the glimmering taper's light,
Adorns and cheers the way;
And still, as darker grows the night,
Emits a brighter ray.

PART IV.

SYNTAX.

In the preceding lessons we have been dealing chiefly with words. We have learned to tell, from its use in the sentence, what part of speech a word is; we have learned how the parts of speech are classified, and how some of them are inflected. The branch of grammar that treats of these matters is known as ETYMOLOGY. The term means *a knowledge of the origin, uses, and changes of words*.

But, while learning what we have done about words as words, *i.e.*, about etymology, we have learned a good deal about the way in which words are put together into sentences to enable us to express our thoughts. This branch of grammar is really distinct from the other, and is known as SYNTAX. The term literally means *an arranging together*. We shall now, in a manner more connected and systematic than before, take up the subject of Syntax, or the proper way of arranging words in sentences.

LESSON XLI.

SIMPLE SENTENCE.—SUBJECT AND VERB.

1. The combinations of words which we make in expressing our thoughts are called sentences, and these sentences, as to form, may be *assertive, interrogative, or imperative* (Lesson XVII.) But by far the most common form of the sentence is the assertive, *i.e.*, the form that is used in making an *assertion* or statement.

2. In every assertion or statement, as we learned in Part I., there must be a subject to name that about which the assertion is made, and a predicate to assert what we say of the subject. The subject may be either a noun or a pronoun, or some other word or words having the value of a noun. The predicate must contain, as its essential part, a verb, because the verb is the only part of speech that asserts (Lessons V. and VII.)

3. When a noun or a pronoun is used as subject, the case that must be employed is the nominative or subjective case: thus, we say

He (not him) loved; Who (not whom) spoke;
I (not me) give.

And since the essential part of the predicate is the verb, the subject of the sentence is also called the subject (or subject-nominative) of the verb.

4. Again, so far as the verb has different forms of person and number, the form used is of the same person and number as the subject: thus, we say

I give (not gives); Thou goest (not go or goes);
The men were (not was or wast).

5. This relation of subject and verb is also expressed by saying that the verb AGREES with its subject in number and person; or that the subject GOVERNS the verb in number and person—that is, *requires* the verb to be of a certain character in these respects: the subject being given, the verb is compelled to correspond with it in number and person.

6. A sentence composed of a verb and its subject (or subject-nominative), is called a BARE sentence, and with respect to such a sentence we have now these first rules of syntax, which are applicable also to all sentences:

I. *A sentence is composed of subject and predicate; the subject, a noun (or a word or words having the value of a noun), names that of which something is asserted; the predicate, which is a verb, expresses that which is asserted of the subject.*

II. *The subject of the sentence (also called the subject-nominative of the verb) is in the nominative case.*

III. *The verb agrees with its subject in person and number.*

7. The foregoing are the general principles underlying all sentences, but there are a few special cases under these rules that need to be taken up here.

The Subject.—A verb sometimes has for its subject the pronoun **it**, not as standing for any real actor, but as helping the verb to assert that a certain action or state is going on without reference to any actor or person: thus,

**It rains; It thunders; It grew dark; It strikes seven;
It will soon be winter.**

Such subjects are called **IMPERSONAL**, and the verb is said to be used **IMPERSONALLY**.

8. Again, the pronoun **it** very often stands as subject of a verb to represent a word, a phrase, or a clause, which is the real subject, and which is then put after the verb: thus,

It is sinful to lie; It is doubtful whether he will come;
that is,

To lie is sinful, Whether he will come is doubtful.

9. **The Predicate.**—In deciding the *number* of the verb we must consider, not the *form*, but the *meaning* of the subject. From this principle it follows that

i. With a collective noun in the singular we use either a singular or a plural verb, according as the subject means the collection as a whole, or the separate individuals of which it is composed: thus,

The **council** (considered as a whole) **has** decided the matter.

The **council** (considered as individuals) **have** decided the matter.

ii. Two or more singular nouns, or their equivalents, connected by **and** regularly take a verb in the plural: thus,

Time and tide wait for no man.

He and I are in the same class.

To sing and play are very useful accomplishments.

REMARK.—If two or more singular nouns connected by **and** are preceded by **each**, **every** or **no**, the verb must be singular: thus,

Each } man and horse has fallen.
Every }
No human being and no animal is ever seen there.

iii. When two or more singular subjects are thought of as one thing the verb is singular: thus,

Bread and cheese is wholesome food.
My friend and adviser warns me.
Her health and strength was ruined forever.

iv. When two singular subjects are connected by **or** or **nor** the verb is singular: thus,

Either John or James is in the wrong.
Neither the will nor the ability was wanting.

10. Of course, if the subjects connected by **or** or **nor** are both plural, or one singular and the other plural, the verb will be plural. In the latter case the plural subject should be placed nearest the verb; as,

Either } the boys { or } the girls have done this.
Neither }
Either } the leader { or } his men are to blame.
Neither }

Exercise 134.—In the following sentences point out the subject-nominative, and mention the rules of syntax that apply to the verbs:—

1. From crag to crag leaps the live thunder. 2. It is the foe! they come, they come. 3. Wolfe and Montcalm were brave generals. 4. Cowardice and treachery generally go together. 5. The people were much enraged. 6. The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea. 7. Each book and paper was arranged. 8. Every boy and girl is to have a prize. 9. No wheat and no corn was raised that year. 10. Neither the difficulty nor the cost of travelling is insuperable. 11. Cries nor tears bring any response. 12. No man detests slavery more than I do, I am its mortal foe. 13. The house has decided the question. 14. To read and write was once an honorable distinction. 15. No penitence or contrition is available now. 16. The saint, the father and the husband prays. 17. It was the deep mid-noon. 18. The soldier and statesman was ready with his counsel. 19. Why is dust and ashes proud? 20. The cavalry were sent to reconnoitre.

Exercise 135.—Errors for Correction.—Correct the following, where necessary, and give reasons:—

1. Every man, woman, and child were put to the sword. 2. The number of sufferers have not yet been ascertained. 3. The house as well

as its inmates was destroyed by fire. 4. Gold nor lands avails to ward off death. 5. There's several mistakes in this exercise. 6. Neither his conduct nor his language were what they should have been. 7. Bread and cheese are wholesome food. 8. No food and no water are to be found there. 9. Each book and paper were to be arranged. 10. Thinks I to myself there's thieves in the house. 11. The horse and carriage are at the door. 12. The committee is all of the same opinion. 13. My trusty counsellor and friend has warned me to have no dealings with such a man. 14. The secretary and the treasurer was on hand. 15. Milk and water were his only drink. 16. Either the father or the son were left in charge. 17. Can you see a red and white flag? I can see neither. 18. The school-board was in the room. 19. Whom do you think I am?

LESSON XLII.

INCOMPLETE PREDICATES.

1. What was said in the last lesson had reference to a sentence made up of a bare noun or pronoun and a bare verb. But it is comparatively seldom that a sentence is made up of these alone, and we have next to consider how this simple and necessary framework of the sentence is extended and filled out, so as to let us express more, or express ourselves with greater definiteness, in a single sentence.

2. **Incomplete Predicate.**—Many verbs are not in themselves complete as predicates; we almost never put them alone along with a subject; when so put, they do not make a sentence that seems to have a full meaning; we wait for something more to be added.

3. One class of these verbs is made up of such as call for something more to be added relating to the subject, and further describing or qualifying it; and such verbs, as we saw in Lesson X., may be completed by adding to them a predicate adjective or a predicate noun: thus,

Pred. adjective.—I am....poor. They look....hungry.

Pred. noun.—We were....brothers. The men
seemed....porters.

4. A word thus used is called a **PREDICATE NOUN** or a **PREDICATE ADJECTIVE**, because it in a manner completes the predication or assertion made by the verb; it describes the subject, being made part of the assertion respecting the latter; it does so by the help of the verb which brings it into connection with the subject.

5. The number of verbs that thus take a predicate adjective or noun is not a very large one. When regarded as not able of themselves to make a complete predicate, they are called **VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION**. By far the commonest of the whole class is the verb **be**: thus,

I **am** ill; He **was** angry; They **will be** tired.
You **are** a scholar; She **was** the heroine;
They **have been** soldiers.

6. Other verbs of incomplete predication are

i. **Become**, with its near equivalents, **grow**, **get**, **turn**, and the like: thus,

I **became** ill; His face **grew** black; It **turned** cold.

ii. **Remain**, **continue**, **stay**, and the like: thus,

John **remained** silent; He **continues** grateful.

iii. **Seem**, **appear**, **look**, and the like: thus,

She **seemed** a goddess; It **looks** terrible.

iv. **Sound**, **smell**, **feel**, and the like: thus,

The rose **smells** sweet; It **feels** soft.

v. Verbs of state and motion, like **stand**, **sit**, **go**, **move**, and so on: thus,

The door **stands** open; My blood **runs** cold;
They **sat** mute; He **will go** mad; He **ran** foul of me.

vi. The passive of verbs which take an objective predicate (pars. 11 and 12, Lesson XLIII.): thus,

He **was made** angry; They **are called** cannibals.

7. With the verbs mentioned in v. above, the modifying force of the predicate adjective is very often shared by both subject and verb. Thus, in

He **stands** firm,

we mean not only that he is firm in his standing, but also that the standing itself is firm. So, also, in

**The sun shines bright ; The messenger comes running ;
The tone rings clear and full.**

An adjective thus used may be distinguished as an **ADVERBIAL PREDICATE** adjective.

8. An inflected word in the predicate (except a predicate possessive) ought, since it describes the subject, to be in the same case with it ; and this rule is generally observed in English—that is to say, in the pronouns, the only words which distinguish nominative and objective. Thus, we say

It is I ; It was we ; If it were she ;

and so on. Careless and inaccurate speakers, however, often use such expressions as

It is them ; It was us ; If it were her ;

but these must be carefully avoided.

9. We have then the definition :

IV. A predicate adjective or noun is one which is brought by a verb into relation with its subject, as describing it ;

and the rule :

V. A predicate pronoun regularly agrees in case with the subject it describes.

Exercise 136.—In the following sentences point out the verbs of incomplete predication ; and mention the predicate adjectives or predicate nouns that complete them :—

1. His purse was low, his friends were few. 2. A thing of beauty is a joy forever. 3. At first it seemed a little speck. 4. The stars were dim, and thick the night. 5. And they all dead did lie. 6. They went along singing. 7. He stood gazing at the scene below. 8. Man became a living soul. 9. Silent she stood. 10. With him lay dead both hope and pride. 11. A man he was to all the country dear. 12. Hope springs eternal in the human breast. 13. Men may live like fools, but fools they cannot die.

Exercise 137.—Errors for Correction.—Make such changes as are necessary in the following, and give your reasons :—

1. He lives here and they in Toronto. 2. My duty and not my interests

prompt me to act thus. 3. I think I have saw you before. 4. I am sure it was him. 5. This is one of the best books that has ever appeared. 6. They are easily destroyed and their existence forgotten. 7. No one has been spoke to about it. 8. It was them and not us that was to blame. 9. She done wrong in stopping so late, she ought to have went sooner. 10. Not only was the building burnt, but the contents too. 11. We seen them in the garden as we was coming from school. 12. His diet was scanty, his prayers long and fervent. 13. I have wrote to them twice, and no answer has came yet. 14. It wasn't me that done it, it was them boys. 15. The plan proposed was one of the boldest that has ever been put forward. 16. The river has overflown its banks.

LESSON XLIII.

OBJECT OF THE VERB.

1. The Direct Object.—A very much larger class of verbs than those spoken of above are incomplete in another way—namely, as they call for the addition of a word to express some person or thing on which the action they signify is exerted. Thus, for example,

I fold....; She tells....; The man wrote....;

where we expect an addition telling what is folded, or told, or written, and the sense is made complete in some such way as this:

I fold the paper; She tells a story; The man wrote a letter.

Such an added word is always a name of something, a noun (or else a pronoun or other equivalent of a noun); and it is called the **OBJECT** of the verb, because it signifies that at which the action of the verb is directed (Lesson XII.)

The verb that takes such an object to complete its meaning is called **TRANSITIVE**, because its action, instead of being merely asserted of the subject, "passes over," and affects the object (Lesson XIX.)

2. When a verb is completed in this way by a pronoun, we find the case in which the object is put is the objective: thus,

I strike him; They saw us.

Hence we say that a transitive verb governs the objective case, that is, its object is compelled to be of that case.

3. But verbs, which are ordinarily called transitive, may in English, almost without exception, be used without any expressed object, that is intransitively. In that case they signify simply the doing of an act, without taking into account whom or what it is done to: thus,

I love; You speak; Seek, fire, kill.

4. On the other hand, there are verbs which do not properly take after them such an object: thus, for example,

Sit, fall, run, lie.

We may sit *on* something, fall *from* something, run *over* some one, and so on; but we do not usually sit anyone or anything. Such verbs are called INTRANSITIVES (par. 2, Lesson XIX.)

5. Although it is the nature of intransitive verbs not to require to be completed by an object, a few intransitive verbs sometimes become so far transitive as to take an object of similar meaning to the verb: thus,

I dreamed a dream; He ran a race.

She sleeps the sleep that knows no waking.

This kind of object is called a COGNATE object, because it is always of similar meaning to the verb, and is often derived from the same word as the verb. (*Cognate* means *related, akin to, i.e., to the verb.*)

6. The Indirect Object.—The kind of object we have thus far considered is also called a DIRECT object, because its relation to the “governing” verb is so close and immediate as not to admit of an auxiliary word, as a preposition, to define it.

7. Some verbs, however, take along with such a direct object,

another of a different character, in a relation which we more usually express by **to** or **for** : thus,

He gave me the book ; They made the man a coat.

In these sentences **book** and **coat** are evidently the direct objects of the verbs **gave** and **made**. But in the first sentence, **me** points out *to* whom the act of giving the book was done ; in the second, **man** shows *for* whom the act of making the coat was performed.

This appears at once if we change the order of the words, and put **me** and **man** after the direct object. We are then obliged to use prepositions: thus,

He gave the book to me ; They made a coat for the man.

Other examples are,

**He means us no good ;
We forgive our friends their faults ;
He paid the man his wages ;
You answered me the question ;
He taught his sister music.**

8. Such a second object, then, is called an **INDIRECT** object, because it represents what is less directly affected by the action of the verb, and because the same relation may be, and often is, expressed by prepositions—namely, by **to** or, more rarely, by **for**.

But, although we may use **to** and **for** in expressing the relation of the indirect object, we must not make the mistake of supposing that a **to** or a **for** is left out, and **to** be “understood” as expressed along with the object itself, any more than that **of** is left out with **John's**, because, instead of it, we may say **of John**. The case is not, indeed, like the possessive, now distinguished by an ending of its own ; but it was so formerly.

9. The indirect object, like the direct, is put in the objective case. But the objective in this use is to be called the **INDIRECT OBJECTIVE**.

10. When a verb, which in the active conjugation takes both a direct and an indirect object, becomes passive, either its direct or its indirect object may become the subject: thus,

The book was given me ; or, I was given the book.

11. **Objective Predicate Adjective or Noun.**—We have seen (par. 4, Lesson XLII.) that a predicate adjective or noun is one which, being added to the verb, forms part of the predication or assertion about the *subject* of the verb; one that is made, through the verb, to describe or modify the subject.

Now, it is sometimes also the case that an adjective or noun forms parts of the assertion by describing or modifying, not the *subject*, but the direct *object*. Thus, in

He made the stick straight,

the *adjective* **straight** modifies the object **stick**, by becoming a kind of addition to the verb **made**; as if we said

He made-straight the stick;

as we do say,

He **straightened** the stick.

It will easily be seen that the word **straight** forms part of the assertion made about **he**; for what we wish to assert is, not that **he made the stick**, but, as has just been said, that **he straightened the stick**.

And in

We called him a coward,

the *noun* **coward** modifies the object **him** by becoming a part of the assertion; for we do not assert that we called him, but that

We called-a-coward him.

Other examples are,

The sailors made the rope fast ;	They choose her queen ;
They planed the board smooth ;	He called me a thief ;
The lightning struck him dead ;	We made him leader ;
She wrings the clothes dry ;	I named my dog Snap ;
You see him running ;	I think him a rogue .

12. If any of the above sentences be turned into the passive form by making the former object the subject (par. 3, Lesson XXXIX.), the adjectives or nouns that before modified the object will become ordinary predicate adjectives or predicate nouns modifying the subject: thus,

The stick was made straight;
He was called a coward.

13. A predicate adjective or noun used as in par. 11, in close connection with a verb, to modify its object, is distinguished from the ordinary predicate adjective or noun by being called an **objective** predicate adjective or noun.

14. We have, then, the following :

VI. *A transitive verb takes a direct object, expressing that which is immediately affected by the act of the verb; and sometimes also an indirect object, expressing that to or for which the act is performed.*

VII. *The object of a verb, whether direct or indirect, is in the objective case, the direct being called a direct objective, and the indirect an indirect objective.*

VIII. *An adjective or a noun is called an objective predicate adjective or predicate noun when it helps the verb to form the predicate by modifying the direct object.*

Exercise 138.—In the following sentences point out the objects, and state their kind and their government. Point out also the predicate adjectives and the predicate nouns:—

1. He lent me a useful book. 2. I forgave thee all that debt. 3. He smiled a dreadful smile. 4. He taught his sister music. 5. My brother heard me my lessons. 6. I have fought a good fight. 7. You must keep the water hot. 8. The ball went rolling down the street. 9. He wrought the castle much annoy. 10. The boy made his sister angry. 11. The sister was made angry. 12. I mean you no harm. 13. Let me die the death of the righteous. 14. She carries her head high. 15. He is seen running. 16. I sang my throat dry.

17. *And the skipper he blew a whiff from his pipe,
And a scornful laugh laughed he.*

LESSON XLIV.

ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS.

1. **Predicate Adjective.**—We have found that a noun may be modified by an adjective or a noun in a way that requires a word of assertion, that is, a verb to connect the modifying noun or pronoun with the modified noun, and we have seen that an *adjective* so used is called a **PREDICATE** adjective, or is said to be used **PREDICATIVELY** (par. 3, Lesson X.)

2. **Attributive Adjective.**—But we have also found that an *adjective* may modify a noun in a manner more direct than this, namely, by being simply added to the noun, the quality expressed by the adjective not being asserted, but only mentioned as belonging to the object signified by the noun. And we have seen that an adjective used in this latter way is called an **ATTRIBUTIVE** adjective, or is said to be used **ATTRIBUTIVELY** (par. 3, Lesson X.)

3. While a predicate adjective modifies only the subject or the direct object of a verb (par. 11, last lesson), an attributive adjective may modify a noun in any situation whatever (par. 6, Lesson IX.)

4. **Appositive Noun.**—A noun is much less often, used to describe another noun in a way somewhat similar to this: thus, in

My friend the hunter carries his weapon, a rifle, upon his shoulder,

we have the nouns **friend** and **weapon** limited or described by the nouns **hunter** and **rifle**. The two words thus added imply that

My friend is a hunter, and that his weapon is a rifle, but the facts are only implied, not asserted.

5. A noun thus used is called **APPOSITIVE**, or is said to be in **APPOSITION** with the other noun. This means *in position by the*

side of, or set alongside of, because the appositive noun seems less closely connected with the noun that it describes, less dependent on it, than the attributive adjective is. It is rather an independent word, added to the other for the purpose of further describing the same thing.

6. Sometimes a pronoun is used in apposition to a noun, or a noun to a pronoun. It is then seen that the appositive word, as may be expected, is in the same case as the word that it modifies: thus,

Wolfe, he that took Quebec, died in the moment of victory.
I gave the parcel to the **porter, him** who always stands by the door.
I, Isaac Ashford, do hereby declare.

7. Appositive Adjective.—But an adjective is also often joined to a noun in a looser and more indirect way, so much like that of the appositive noun that it is also to be called an **APPOSITIVE adjective**. Examples are

For these reasons, avowed and secret;
All poetry, ancient or modern;
Young, handsome, and clever, the page was the darling
of the house;

where the shade of meaning is a little different from what it would be in

For these avowed and secret reasons;
All ancient or modern poetry;
The young, handsome, and clever page.

8. A pronoun, which almost never takes an attributive adjective before it, has an appositive adjective or noun added to it just as freely as a noun has: thus,

We, poor in friends, sought love;
They ran off laughing;
You Frenchmen are livelier than we English.

9. We have, then, the definitions:

IX. *An adjective modifying a noun directly (not through a*

verb) is called **attributive**—or, if more loosely connected with the noun, it is called **appositive**.

X. A noun added to another noun, by way of further description of the same object, is said to be in **apposition** with that noun.

That an appositive adjective or noun also modifies a pronoun has been explained above.

Exercise 139.—In the following sentences say which adjectives are used **attributively**, which **predicatively**, and which **appositively**. Point out, also, the **appositive nouns** and **pronouns**. In each case mention the modified word:—

1. The melancholy days are come, the saddest of the year, of wailing winds, and naked woods, and meadows brown and sere. 2. Ardent and intrepid in the battle-field, Monmouth was everywhere else effeminate and irresolute. 3. History is philosophy teaching by examples. 4. She was dead. Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead. 5. In there came old Alice the nurse. 6. The daughter of a hundred earls, you are not one to be desired. 7. They all with one consent began to make excuse. 8. God save thee, ancient mariner! 9. Tired and hungry, he hastened home. 10. The many men, so beautiful! and they all dead did lie. 11. My lips were wet, my throat was cold, my garments all were dank. 12. Plato, thou reasonest well. 13. Our old friend, the captain, was elected president.

14. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again;

But error, wounded, writhes with pain and dies.

Exercise 140.—**Errors for Correction.**—Make such changes as you think necessary in the following sentences, and give reasons for what you do:—

1. This grammar contains a great quantity of exercises. 2. Shakespeare is greater than any dramatist. 3. There was much cattle in the meadow. 4. All men think all men mortal but themselves. 5. He is more cleverer than anyone I ever seen. 6. That is the best horse of the two. 7. The nation is torn by feuds which threaten their ruin. 8. Niagara is finer than all sights. 9. Give every syllable and every letter their due utterance. 10. This paper has the largest circulation of any paper in the city. 11. Thomas and her are going to school. 12. Who done that? It was me and him. 13. Them are excellent apples. 14. Miss Jones, her who went to the examination, succeeded. 15. It is me that will have to suffer. 16. I am sure it was her. 17. You and him can run faster than them. 18. Him being absent, the class was sent home. 19. You are almost as tall as me. 20. It wasn't them that did it. 21. All enjoyed themselves, me excepted. 22. If you meet a man in a fur coat, that will be him. 23. This is him I was telling you about. 24. Him out of the way, the rest will soon come right. 25. The soldiers, them we saw going off, have all come back. 26. I got this book from James, he that sold you yours.

LESSON XLV.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

1. We have seen (Lesson XXVIII.) that nouns and pronouns have an inflectional form, which is called their **POSSESSIVE** case, and that the case is called possessive because it is especially used, in connection with another noun, to point out the *possessor* of whatever that noun signifies. For example, if a book has John for its owner, we call it **John's book**; a crown belonging to the king is the **king's crown**; and by extending the meaning of "belonging to" to mean *having to do with in some way or another*, we have come to speak of the doings that are done on a certain day as that **day's doings**, and even of the time that is comprised within a week as a **week's time**, although in these last expressions no idea of possession is intended to be conveyed. Again, if a man has debts, we call them **his debts**; the act performed by him is **his**, *the faults he has committed are his faults*; and so on.

2. In this way, a noun in its possessive case-form becomes a descriptive or limiting addition to another noun, much as if it were an attributive adjective. Often we can put an adjective in place of the possessive with little or no difference of meaning; thus,

The king's crown; The sun's heat; God's mercy;

may also be described as,

The royal crown; The solar heat; Divine mercy.

And we saw (par. 5, Lesson XXI.) that the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, and of the demonstrative pronouns of the third person, always modify a noun expressed or understood; they, therefore, always have the value of adjectives.

3. The possessive is said to be *dependent* on the noun which it describes, or to be *governed* by it: that is to say, the modifying noun is, as it were, *required* or compelled by its relation to the other to take the possessive case-form.

Thus we have the rule:

XI. *The possessive case of a noun or pronoun is used to describe or limit another noun in the manner of an adjective.*

REMARK.—The possessive inflection is, except in poetry, limited principally to nouns signifying persons, animals, and things personified. Thus, we say,

The roof of the house ; not, The house's roof.
The size of the stone ; not, The stone's size.

Exercise 141.—Errors for Correction.—Correct the following sentences, giving the reason in each case:—

1. What is this cheese's weight? 2. That is a boy's and girl's school.
3. I rely on you coming. 4. This is either a man or a woman's voice.
5. John's writing is better than your's. 7. Our town has a mechanic's institute.
8. There aint no use of you saying that. 9. What is the cause of the leaves curling? 10. This field's crop is below the average. 11. It could not have been her. 12. Whom do you think called on me yesterday?

LESSON XLVI.

ADVERB COMPLEMENTS.

1. **Adverbs.**—As the adjective is the usual modifier of the noun, so the adverb is the usual modifier of the other member of the simple sentence, the verb.

2. **Adverbs,** as we have already seen (Lesson XI.), modify also adjectives, and sometimes other adverbs; and there are cases in which an adverb modifies a preposition: thus,

The mouth is just below the nose ;
She jumped clear over the wall ;
A result far beyond his hopes ;
A nail driven deep into the wood.

3. An adverb has very often the value of a *predicate* adjective, usually with some part of the verb **be** : thus,

The sun is **down**, the moon is **up**, and the stars are **out**;
He was **there**, but you were **away**.

4. Less often, an adverb is used as an *appositive* adjective : thus,

Fightings **within**, and fears **without**;
My stay **there** will be short.

5. Sometimes (and less properly) an adverb is used even as an *attributive* adjective : thus,

The **above** passage; The **then** ruler;
My **sometime** friend; His **almost** impudence of manner.

We have, then, the rules :

XII. *An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.*

XIII. *An adverb is sometimes used with the value of an adjective, especially of a predicate adjective.*

6. **Adverbial Objective.**—While our noun has a special case-form—the possessive, which we use in the manner of an adjective to modify a noun (par. 7, Lesson XXVIII.)—it is sometimes used without any special case-form, in the manner of an adverb, to modify a verb, an adjective, or even an adverb : thus,

To modify a verb :

He walked a **mile** ; We travelled all **day** ;
The parcel weighed two **pounds** ; My dress cost six **dollars**.

To modify an adjective :

The street is a **mile** long ; He is a **trifle** better.

To modify an adverb :

His farm is a **mile** away ; I arrived a few **minutes** late ;
The second boat was a **length** behind,

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7. In the first sentences, for example, it is easily seen that the nouns following the verbs are in no proper sense their objects, and that the verbs are intransitive, as usual. Nevertheless, nouns thus used to modify verbs, adjectives and adverbs are considered to be in the objective case; and, from this adverbial use, they are called **ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVES**: that is, an objective case used with the value of an adverb.

8. The adverbial objective is used especially to express *measure*, whether duration of time, or extent of distance, or space, or weight, or number, or age, or value, and the like.

We have, then, the rule:

XIV. *A noun expressing measure, time, or manner is sometimes used in the objective case with an adverbial value, or to modify a verb or an adjective or an adverb.*

Exercise 142.—In the following sentences, point out the adverbs and adverbial objectives, and mention in each case the words they modify:—

1. A truly upright man always speaks truly. 2. I see your friend very often. 3. A very high tide occurred quite recently. 4. My stay here will not be long. 5. The mighty wreck lay right athwart the stream. 6. It is the signal of our friends within. 7. But close around the body no cries were heard. 8. He is ten years old. 9. My sometime friend now passes me by. 10. You should have come an hour sooner. 11. His house is a great deal better built. 12. The feast was over in Branksome tower. 13. He is above, sir, changing his dress. 14. They watched all night long. 15. The above passage clearly bears me out.

16. Seven days, seven nights, I saw that sight,
And yet I could not die.

Exercise 143.—**Errors for Correction.**—Correct, where necessary, the following, giving the reason in each case:—

1. She always appears very amiably. 2. I cannot run no farther. 3. He feels some better. 4. That is an awful pretty hat. 5. His conduct was surprising strange. 6. He won't give me none of his flowers. 7. I will soon have it finally completed. 8. He doesn't wish for none at all. 9. Only sleep, my young friend, in the dark. 10. If you wish to live healthily you must live conformable to the rules of health. 11. I will not forgive him neither this year nor next. 12. We ascended an exceeding high mountain. 13. Agreeable to his promise he came this p.m. 14. Many people never learns to speak correct. 15. I feel coldly somewhat this morning.

LESSON XLVII.

NOUNS USED ABSOLUTELY.

1. There is yet another way in which a noun (or pronoun) is sometimes made to describe or modify something in a sentence, without having its relation to what it modifies denoted either by a case-form or by a connecting word. Thus we say,

He lay down, his heart heavy with sorrow ;
He flies, wild terror in his look ;
They charged, sword in hand and visor down ;
The mountain rose, height above height.

A word thus used always has added to it an appositive adjective or a word or a phrase of some kind (an adverb, a preposition-phrase, etc.) having the same value. The construction is especially common with a participle modifying the noun or pronoun : thus,

The sun **having risen**, the fog soon dispersed ;
This **finished**, they took their leave ;
He **being penitent**, we pardoned him.

2. A noun or a pronoun thus used is said to be used **ABSOLUTELY**, and to form with the added word an absolute phrase, so called because it appears to stand as if *cut loose*, so far as grammatical connection is concerned, from the rest of the sentence. The case used, as appears from the last example, is regularly the nominative.

3. An absolute phrase always has an adverbial value, for it indicates either the time, the cause, the condition, or some other accompanying circumstance, of the action asserted in the sentence that precedes or follows it : see examples.

Thus we have the rule :

XV. *A noun or pronoun along with an appositive adjective or its equivalent, is sometimes used in the nominative case absolutely,*

in the manner of an adverb to express some accompanying circumstance or condition of the action.

Exercise 144.—In the following sentences mention the absolute phrases, and say what nouns and pronouns in them are used absolutely:—

1. He waited an hour, staff in hand. 2. They sit side by side. 3. On we marched, our companions following. 4. This said, he paused not. 5. The rest must perish, their great leader slain. 6. He out of the way, our work would be easy. 7. Each in his narrow cell for ever laid, the rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep. 8. The foe and the stranger will tread o'er his head, and we far away on the billow. 9. This having been said, he sat down.

10. Fast as shaft can fly,
Bloodshot his eyes, his nostrils spread,
The loose rein dangling from his head,
Housings and saddle bloody red,
Lord Marmion's steed rushed by.

LESSON XLVIII.

PREPOSITION, ADJECTIVE, AND ADVERB-PHRASES.

1. A preposition we have seen (Lesson XVIII.) to be a connecting word by means of which a noun or a pronoun is attached to another word—noun, verb, or adjective—to modify it after the manner of an adjective or of an adverb.

2. We have seen, too, that the noun or the pronoun thus attached to another word by the preposition is called the **OBJECT** of the preposition, or is said to be **GOVERNED BY** or **DEPENDENT ON** it, and is put in the objective case.

The preposition and the word that it governs form together a preposition-phrase, and we found that this phrase is called an adjective-phrase when it modifies a noun, and an adverb-phrase when it modifies a verb or an adjective; and that it is often possible to substitute an adjective for an adjective-phrase, and an adverb for an adverb-phrase (par. 4, Lesson XIII.)

3. The words composing many adverb-phrases are used so often together that they can hardly be taken apart and parsed separately: such are

on board, on fire, at hand, out of doors, on the whole, for the present.

Many, indeed, have quite grown together, and are never separated when so used: thus,

indeed, aboard, out-doors, beforehand, to-day, overboard.

4. An adverb-phrase, like an adverb, sometimes takes the place of a noun as object of a preposition: for example,

He went from **here**; He came from **beyond the sea**.

We have, then, the following rules as to the use of prepositions:

XVI. *A preposition forms with its object either an adjective-phrase, modifying a noun, or an adverb-phrase, modifying a verb or an adjective or an adverb.*

XVII. *The object of a preposition (if a noun or a pronoun) is in the objective case.*

Exercise 145.—In the following sentences point out the preposition-phrases, and say whether they are adjective or adverb-phrases, and why:—

1. At dead of night in sullen silence stalks forth the pestilence. 2. Stop! for thy tread is on an empire's dust. 3. We take no note of time, but from its loss. 4. Mercy is above this sceptred sway; it is enthroned in the hearts of kings. 5. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among, leaps the live thunder. 6. Other ways exist, besides through me.

7. Brightest and best of the sons of the morning!
Dawn on our darkness and lend us their aid.

Sometimes a slight difference in the wording of a sentence will very much alter its meaning, as is seen in the following exercise.

Exercise 146.—Distinguish between—

1. { I have aided you more than he.
I have aided you more than him.
2. { An able and intelligent friend.
An able and an intelligent friend.
3. { She has more discretion than genius.
She has more discretion than a genius.
4. { Southey is a better prose-writer than poet.
Southey is a better prose-writer than a poet.

5. { Can you see a red and white flag?
Can you see a red and a white flag?
6. { The secretary and treasurer will be on hand.
The secretary and the treasurer will be on hand.
7. { He was happier than any person in the house.
He was happier than any other person in the house.
8. { Few men have been more honored.
A few men have been more honored.
9. { My friend had a taste for farming.
My friend had a taste of farming.

LESSON XLIX.

SUMMARY OF SYNTAX.

1. We have now considered the parts of speech which combine with one another to form simple sentences, and have noticed the ways in which their combinations are made.

In these ways the necessary elements of the sentence, the bare subject and predicate, are extended and filled up so as to express a thought in a more complete and detailed manner.

2. We may sum up the processes of combination as follows:—

i. *The original elements of the sentence are the subject-noun and the verb.*

ii. *The meaning of the verb may be filled out by an object-noun; also, by a predicate adjective or noun (modifying either the subject or the object); or it may be modified by an adverb.*

iii. *A noun in any construction in the sentence may be modified by an adjective; an adjective, by an adverb; an adverb, by another adverb.*

iv. *A noun may be made to modify another noun, adjectively, by being put in the possessive case, or by being joined to the other noun by a preposition; it may be made to modify a verb or adjective or adverb, adverbially, sometimes in the objective case simply, but usually by means of a preposition.*

In these statements, for brevity's sake, we have treated the pronoun as included along with the noun. Moreover, the "absolute" construction of a noun with an appositive adjunct is here left unnoticed, as being less common, and apart from the ordinary processes of sentence-making. Also, the compounding of the various elements of a sentence by means of conjunctions, because this is a kind of abbreviation, and was treated of in Lesson XXIV.

3. The words and phrases thus added to the subject-noun, or bare subject, and to the verb, or bare predicate, are, in either case, called its MODIFIERS; or, collectively, because they *complete* it, its COMPLEMENT. And the bare subject or predicate, along with its modifiers or complement, is called the COMPLETE subject or predicate.

Some prefer to speak of the *subject* as "extended" or "enlarged," and of the *predicate* as "completed," by the additions made to each respectively; and hence, to call the whole subject the "enlarged" or "extended" subject, and to call only the predicate "completed" or "complete;" but the distinction is not of consequence enough to be worth making.

4. In the ways described above, the simple sentence is, in theory, capable of being drawn out and filled up to any extent—made a whole page long, for instance. But, in practice, the length of a sentence is kept within limits by the fear of becoming awkward and lumbering, or even unintelligible. We put what we have to say, by preference, into a series of briefer sentences, separate statements. And the relation of these separate statements to one another we often determine by means of connecting words.

5. The connecting words which determine the relation of sentences to one another are the conjunctions and the relative or conjunctive pronouns and pronominal adjectives. These bind together simple sentences more or less completely into a whole. Combinations of simple sentences made in this way are called COMPOUND and COMPLEX sentences. These were treated of with sufficient fulness in Lessons XXIV. and XXV., but by way of review, and for the sake of completing our definitions and rules of syntax, we here append a summary of what was said in those lessons on sentences other than simple:—

XVIII. *A sentence which forms a part of a more comprehensive sentence is called a **clause**.*

XIX. *A clause is either independent or dependent—**independent** if it forms an assertion by itself; **dependent** if it enters into some other clause with the value of a part of speech, namely, of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.*

XX. *Clauses are **co-ordinate** if they are of the same rank with one another, either as being alike independent, or as being alike dependent, with the same construction.*

XXI. *A sentence is **compound** if made up of independent clauses; **complex** if it contains a dependent clause, or more than one.*

XXII. *Co-ordinate clauses, whether independent or dependent, are usually joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions.*

XXIII. *A dependent clause is joined to the clause (independent or dependent) on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, by a subordinating conjunction, or by a relative pronoun or adjective.*

XXIV. *A dependent clause is named from its office in the sentence of which it forms a part: it is a substantive, or an adjective, or an adverb-clause.*

XXV. *A **substantive-clause** is one that performs the office of a noun: being the subject or the object of a verb, the object of a preposition, and so on.*

XXVI. *An **adjective-clause** is one that performs the office of an adjective by modifying some noun.*

XXVII. *An **adverb-clause** is one that performs the office of an adverb by modifying a verb, or adjective, or adverb.*

PART V.

APPENDIX.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—Though the lessons that follow have, from their nature, necessarily been put in an Appendix, they may be taken up, or used for reference, in any part of the course that the teacher deems advisable.

LESSON I.

WORDS, LETTERS, THE ALPHABET.

1. Words, Letters.—We express our thoughts by means of spoken or written language. When we speak, our thoughts we make use of sounds, which we form into spoken words; when we write our thoughts we make use of characters or signs which represent to the eye the sounds which in spoken language are addressed to the ear.

Thus, if we wish to call up the idea of that which shines by day in the sky, we first utter the sound of *s*, then the sound of *u*, lastly the sound of *n*. These sounds, by uttering them rapidly one after the other, we combine into the *spoken* word *sun*, and this is addressed to the ear. If, however, we wish to call up the idea of the same object in writing, we first write the sign (or character) *s*, which represents the first sound heard in the spoken word; then the sign *u*, which represents the second sound; and lastly the sign *n*, which represents the third sound. These signs, by writing them close together one after the other, we combine into the *written* word *sun*, which thus represents these three sounds to the eye. In the same manner we make all the words of a spoken or written language.

The written signs that thus stand for the spoken sounds of a language are called **LETTERS**.

CAUTION.—Throughout this lesson the pupil must carefully guard against confounding the sound of a letter with the name of it.

2. The Alphabet.—The collection of all the letters used in a language is called its **ALPHABET**. If, as we have seen, letters are signs for

the sounds used in a language, there ought to be, in a perfect alphabet of any language, as many letters as there are sounds in it. In this respect the English alphabet is very imperfect. It has only twenty-six letters to represent more than forty distinct sounds, and three of these letters, viz., **c**, **g** and **t**, since they represent the same sounds as **s**, **k** and **ks**, are not wanted, so that we have really but twenty-three useful letters.

3. Vowels, Consonants.—Some sounds made by the voice are free and open, as the sound of **a** in **at**, of **e** in **egg**, of **i** in **is**, of **o** in **ox**, and of **u** in **up**; others are made by stopping or obstructing, by means of the lips, tongue, teeth or throat, the voice as it is issuing from the mouth, thus: by lips, **a** **p** in **up**; by tongue, as **n** in **on**; by teeth, as **t** in **at**; and by throat, as **g** in **egg**. Other examples of words beginning with an open, free sound, and ending with a closed or obstructed sound are

am, an, **s**; eve, eel, eat; in, it, if; on, of, ode; us.

Examples of words beginning with obstructed sounds are

pa, ma, **n**, bat, cot, dog, fit, gun, keg, lip, pot.

The open and free sounds are called **VOWEL SOUNDS**, and the closed or obstructed ones are called **CONSONANT SOUNDS**; and the letters that represent these sounds to the eye are called **VOWELS** and **CONSONANTS**. In this way the letters of the alphabet are divided into vowels and consonants.

4. In speaking we use more than thirty vowel sounds, but our alphabet has only five letters to represent them, viz.: **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**. These, then, are the vowels. The consonants, by which we represent the obstructed sounds, are twenty-one, viz.: **b**, **d**, **f**, **g**, **h**, **j**, **k**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **p**, **q**, **r**, **s**, **t**, **v**, **w**, **x**, **y**, **z**; but **w** and **y** are consonants only when they begin a syllable, as in **way** and **you**; elsewhere they are vowels, as in **by** and **low**.

5. According to the organ used in obstructing the voice, consonants are divided into—

lip consonants or labials,	p , b , v , f , m .
tongue “	linguals, l , r , n .
teeth “	dentals, a , d , s , j , z .
throat “	gutturals, a , g , c , q , z .

h represents a breathing only.

Exercise 147.—Mention separately the vowels and consonants in each of the following words:—

Name, scholar, hopeful, think, manner, ruler, government, yard, wide, worry, when, yawn, worthy, The paths of glory lead out to the grave.

6. Diphthongs.—Two vowels are sometimes joined together, as **oi** in **moist**, **ou** in **mouse**. Such a combination is called **DIPHTHONG**.

REMARK.—Two vowels may occur in the same syllable, but if only one is sounded they form an apparent diphthong, not a real one, as *i* in *field*.

Exercise 148.—Write the following words in a column, and then write alongside each the diphthong it contains:—

School, thought, through, feat, fountain, people, cow, way, yew, tree, brook, view, unread, taught, maintain, buyer, yawning, boy, caution, your, voice.

7. Silent Letters.—Many words contain letters which are not sounded, as *k* in *sack*, *gh* in *fight*, *e* in *come*, *ue* in *league*, *y* in *say*, *w* in *bow*, etc. Such letters are called **SILENT** letters; they are often (not always) used to modify the sound of a preceding vowel or consonant. Compare *filled* and *filed*; *mat* and *mate*; *rang* and *range*.

Exercise 149.—Mention the silent letters in each of the following words, and say whether they modify the sound or not:—

Blighted, note, face, site, sight, safe, some, lead, beautiful, valley, please, pleasant, would, could, should, coal, pale, vague, tomb, chalk, doubt.

8. Syllables.—A sound produced by a single effort of the voice, and forming a word or part of a word, is called a **SYLLABLE**. A syllable may be represented by either one or more letters and it must contain at least one vowel: thus,

I, O, a, man, strength, man-i-fest-ly.

Exercise 150.—Divide into syllables each of the following words, thus: *im-me-di-ate*:—

Society, grammarian, thereby, shelf, separation, government, distinctly, distinguish, syllable, divided, follower, composition, caution, recess, time-table, probability, gracious, nation, ocean, arm-chair, nominative.

9. If, in writing, it becomes necessary at the end of a line to divide a word, it can be divided at the end of a syllable only, see par. 10, Lesson LII. Of course, in such case a word of one syllable cannot be divided at all.

Exercise 151.—Say which of the following words you would divide at the end of a line, and where; and why you would not divide the others:—

Articulation, addition, door, doer, table, tabular, wealth, wealthier, there, machine, mechanical, heard, therefore, teacup, penholder, their, factious, courageous, brought, feet, fear, hope, hopeful, foot, foothold, field, field-mouse, window, pencil, pen, inkstand, copy-book, teacher, strength, himself, pond, fish-pond.

REMARK.—It is better, if it can be avoided, not to divide a word at all at the end of a line.

We may now sum up, in the following manner, what has been said in this lesson:—

A spoken word is a sound or a combination of sounds expressive of an idea.

A written word is one in which the sounds of the spoken word are represented by characters or signs.

The characters or signs that stand for spoken sounds are called letters.

The letters used in a language are called its alphabet.

A vowel is a letter that represents a free, open sound, made by the unobstructed voice.

A consonant is a letter that represents a sound made by obstructing the voice by the lips, tongue, teeth or throat, at the beginning or the end of a vowel sound.

A diphthong is the union of two vowels in one sound.

A silent letter in a word is one that is not sounded.

A spoken syllable is a sound produced by one effort of the voice; a written syllable is the letters that represent that sound.

LESSON LI.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

1. **Capital Letters** are used for the sake of giving importance to certain words so that the sense may thereby be made more obvious. A capital letter should be used to begin—

1. The first word of every sentence.
2. The first word of every line of poetry.
3. The first word of every direct quotation making complete sense, thus: Judas said, "**M**aster, is it I?"
4. All proper nouns and derivatives from them, thus, **C**anada; **C**anadian; the **E**nglish language.
5. The names of streets, of the days of the week, and of the months of the year, thus: **B**edford Street; **S**padina Avenue; the month of **A**ugust; **W**ednesday morning.
6. The name and titles of Deity, thus: **G**od; **C**hrist, the **A**lmighty; the **M**ost **H**igh; the **S**on of **M**an.

7. Important words in the titles of books and essays, thus: **Errors** in the **Use of English**.

8. Titles of office and honor, thus: the **Marquis of Lorne**; **Sheriff Jones**; **Mayor Howland**.

9. Names of things personified, thus: O **Death**, where is thy sting?

10. Names of religious denominations and political parties thus: the **Baptists**; the **Roman Catholics**; the **Tories**; the **Reformers**

11. The pronoun **I** and the interjection **O**.

12. The words **North**, **South**, **East** and **West**, and compounds of these, when they denote sections of country, but not when they merely denote direction.

Exercise 152.—Errors for Correction.—Correct all errors in the use of capitals in the following sentences, and give the reason for the changes made:—

1. and nathan said unto david, thou art the Man.
2. i am the lord thy god.
3. The christian religion has christ the redeemer for its great central Truth.
4. O solitude! where are the Charms tha' Sages have seen in thy Face?
5. The Earthquake occurred on the first wednesday in february.
6. lord Dufferin was once governor-general of cnada; he was afterwards viceroy of india.
7. They will come from the east and from the west, from the north and from the south.
8. I am eading morley's history Of The netherlands.
9. the city of hamilton is on burlington bay.
10. My Sister and I study french and german, and our Brother studies greek and latin.
11. The provincial secretary reside at no. 14 bloomsgrove crescent.
12. methodists are sometimes called weslyans after john wesley.

13. from stirling castle we had seen
the mazy forth unravelled;
had trod the Banks of clyde and tay,
and with the twined had travelled.

LESSON LII.

PUNCTUATION MARKS.

1. Punctuation marks are certain marks that are used in writing to enable the reader, by means of the eye, to apprehend more readily the sense of the passage. They are

the Period .	the Interrogation Mark ?
" Colon :	" Exclamation Mark !
" Semicolon ;	" Dash —
" Comma ,	" Parenthesis ()

2. **The Period.**—The Period is used, 1st, at the end of every com-

plete sentence, unless the nature of the sentence calls for the Interrogation Mark or the Exclamation Mark, thus: **Time and tide wait for no man.** 2nd. After abbreviations, figures used in numbering, and before decimals, thus: **Rev.; Hon.; Geo. T. Jackson, Esq.; 1. 2. 3.; \$36.75.**

3. The Colon.—The Colon is used, 1st, between sentences that are connected only slightly in sense, thus: **I met a little cottage girl: she was eight years old, she said.** 2nd. Before words used in explanation of a previous statement or of a title, thus: **Feathered workmen serve no apprenticeship: their trade comes to them by nature. A Psalm of Life: a Poem by Longfellow.** 3rd. Before a direct quotation, thus: **Sydney handed the cup to the poor fellow with these words: "Thy necessity is greater than mine."**

REMARK.—If the quotation be short a comma suffices, thus: **Judas said, "Is it I?"**

Exercise 153.—Punctuate the following, giving reasons for what you do:—

1 Niagara Falls are a wonderful sight 2 Shakespeare died Apr 23 A D 1616 3 Italian ships covered every sea Italian factories rose on every shore Italian money-changers set up their tables in every city manufactories flourished banks and gentlemen we are etc 8 Warren Hastings an Essay by Macaulay 9 It may cost something to serve God it will cost more not to serve Him

6 Prosperity makes friends adversity tries them 7 The president rose and said Ladies and gentlemen we are etc 8 Warren Hastings an Essay by Macaulay 9 It may cost something to serve God it will cost more not to serve Him

10 The long day wanes the slow moon climbs
The deep moans around with many voices

4. The Semicolon.—The Semicolon is used, 1st, between sentences somewhat closely connected in sense, thus: **The Lord is my shepherd; I shall not want.** 2nd. After a complete sentence when a clause is added stating a reason, an inference, or an explanation, thus: **Mercy is twice blessed; it blesseth him that gives, and him that takes.** 3rd. Between parts of a sentence that already have the comma, thus: **If the tree is still straight, the beavers set to work again; but the moment they hear it crack, off they run to keep out of danger.** 4th. Between the clauses of a compound sentence, especially if these are contracted, or are long, or are not quite closely connected, thus: **Man counts his life by years; the oak, by centuries. Then shook the hills by thunder riven; then rushed the steed, to battle driven.**

5. The Comma.—The Comma is used, 1st, before an appositive noun or pronoun, thus: **Nature's sweet restorer, balmy sleep.** 2nd. After the name of the person addressed, thus: **My son, give me thine heart.** 3rd. Between an absolute phrase and the rest of the sentence,

thus: This finished, they took their leave. On they marched, sword in hand. 4th. Between words and pairs of words used in the same construction, thus: Young, handsome, and clever, the page was the darling of the court. Old and young, rich and poor, wise and foolish, perished together. 5th. Before and after words and phrases used parenthetically in a sentence. The following are thus "set off" by commas:—however, therefore, accordingly, namely, indeed, perhaps; in short, of course, as it were, so to speak, on the one hand, etc. 6th. Between the clauses of a compound sentence, if they are simple in construction and short, thus: He rewarded his friends, chastised his foes, set Justice on her seat, and made his conquest secure.

Exercise 154.—Punctuate the following, giving reasons for what you do:—

1. Straws lie at the surface but pearls lie at the bottom 2. Touch not taste not handle not 3. I am not afraid my father is in the house 4. Homer was the greater genius but Virgil was the better artist 5. To err is human to forgive, divine 6. There are ten cities in Ontario Toronto, Hamilton, etc 7. I must go for night is coming on.

8. I rise sir to a point of order 9. The storm being over he departed 10. Men and women friends and enemies monks and prebendaries were crumbled amongst one another. 11. Gentle shepherd tell me where. 12. He will in all probability deny it 13. I indeed scarcely ever see him now. 14. Sink or swim live or die survive or perish I give my hand and heart to this vote 15. His conduct proceeds in a great degree if not altogether from ignorance 16. To tell the truth I was to blame. 17. He wrote readily forcibly and accurately. 18. A godly righteous and sober life brings a man peace at the last.

6. The Interrogation Mark is used after every sentence that contains a *direct* question, thus: "What is thy name, yeoman?" asked Prince John.

7. The Exclamation Mark is used after interjections, exclamatory phrases, and invocations, thus: Pshaw! Hello, my fine fellow! Father of all! in every age adored!

Exercise 155.—Punctuate the following, giving reasons for what you do:—

1. What's to-day my fine fellow said Scrooge. 2. A wounded spirit who can bear. 3. I suppose sir you are the doctor are you 4. Who hath trouble who hath contention they that tarry long at the wine. 5. And Jesus said How many loaves have ye 6. What is our life It is even as a vapor.

7. But hush hark a deep sound strikes like a rising knell. 8. England with all thy faults I love thee still. 9. Friend of the wise and teacher of the good. 10. Hands off says Pompey. 11. An officer seeing this called out See they run. 12. Fly mailed monarch fly. 13. When lo its folds

far waving on the wind I saw the train of the departing year. 14. Quick quick cried he let us run away or they will catch us. 15. How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds make ill deeds done

16. The Sea the Sea the open Sea
The blue the fresh the ever free
I'm on the Sea I'm on the Sea
I am where I would ever be

8. The Dash is used, 1st, to indicate an unexpected break, pause, or turn in the sentence, thus: I was crossing the bridge, when a little girl—but I must not tell the story, it is too painful. And now my business is—to die. 2nd. Instead of a parenthesis, thus: With thanks —'twas all she could—the maid his rugged courtesy repaid.

REMARK.—Many persons use the Dash freely in place of the other correct punctuation marks. The practice should be studiously avoided, as it is always a proof of ignorance or of carelessness in the writer.

9. The Parenthesis is used to enclose words in a sentence, which, being chiefly explanatory, are not necessary to the sense, thus: The night (it was the middle of summer) was fair and calm.

10. Other marks used in writing.—The Hyphen - is used, 1st, between the parts of a compound word when such parts have not grown together into one word, thus: door-mat; wheat-field; time-serving; rose-tinted. 2nd. At the end of a line when a word is divided, thus:

Words can be di-
vided at the end of a syl-
lable only.

11. The Caret [^] is used to mark that some letter, word, or expression was omitted in writing, and is to be supplied by what is written over the
e been
caret, thus: belive; The caret has called a blunder-mark.
[^] [^]

12. Quotation Marks “ ” are used to show that the words they enclose are the exact words of some person, or have been previously used by the writer or some one else, thus: And Cain said, “Am I my brother's keeper?” His last words were: “How short is time! how long is eternity!” “Surely,” said I, “man is but a shadow, and his life a dream.”

REMARK.—It is seen by these examples, 1st, that an Interrogation or Exclamation Mark, if belonging to the quotation, must be included within the quotation marks. 2nd. If the quotation is interrupted by the insertion of explanatory words, each part must have quotation marks.

13. The Apostrophe ' is used to mark the omission of one or more letters or figures, to mark the possessive case of nouns, and to form the plural of some letters and signs, thus: o'er; tho'; 'gan. '86. The boy's hat. Cross the t's and dot the i's. Change the + 's and the - 's.

Exercise 156.—Punctuate the following, giving reasons:—

1. Nelson was in want of frigates the eyes of the fleet as he called them. 2. He had only twenty-three ships the others had been lost with which to meet the enemy. 3. Perhaps he did not see Nora Heaven only knows and so died. 4. He had no malice in his mind no ruffles on his shirt. 5. Arm arm it is it is the cannon's opening roar. 6. Her dark eye flashed she paused and fled.

7. He gave utterance as he often does to revolutionary sentiments. 8. I knew his companion I had good reason to know him to be a man of the vilest character. 9. That woman I say it with all reverence was more angel than mortal. 10. A few and these were among the youngest of the children slept peacefully on. 11. The feeble winters sun and winters suns in the city are very feeble indeed just then brightened up.

12. Quick quick cried he let us run away or he will catch us

Who will catch us asked the stranger

Mr Toil the old schoolmaster answered Daffy Dont you see him amongst the haymakers

Exercise 157.—Errors for Correction.—Correct any errors in the following:—

1. An honest mans the noblest work of God 2 The young are slaves to novelty the old to custom 3 A fathers or a mothers sister is an aunt 4. Honor being lost all is lost 5 The Pleasures of Memory a poem by Samuel Rogers 6 A horse my kingdom for a horse 7 But who can paint like nature he exclaimed Can imagination boast amid its gay creation hues like hers 8 Her voice was ever soft and low an excellent thing in woman 9 The common air the earth the skies to him are opening Paradise 10 Lamb was a writer of humor Smith of wit 11 My poverty not my will consents 12 Ah then and there was hurrying to and fro 13 Well can the green-garbed ranger tell how when and where the monster fell.

14. Very well indeed said Mr Crummles bravo

Bravo cried Nicholas resolved to make the best of everything beautiful

This sir said Mr Vincent Crummles bringing the maiden forward This is the infant phenomenon Miss Ninetta Crummles

Your daughter inquired Nicholas

My daughter my daughter replied Mr Crummles the idol of every place we go into sir

LESSON LIII.

LETTER-WRITING.

1. Parts of a Letter.—The essential parts of a letter are the heading, the address, the salutation, the body, the complimentary close, the signature, and the direction.

2. The Heading.—This consists of the name of the place at which the letter is written and the date. The former should be given in full as a direction to where an answer is to be sent; and the latter should give the month, the day of the month, and the year of the writing. If ruled paper is used, the heading is written on the first line of it; if unruled, it is written one and a half or two inches from the top of the page, beginning a little to the left of the middle of the page. If the place and the date occupy more than this half line, they should be separated and written on two lines, the second beginning a little farther to the right than the line above it: thus,

Toronto, April 17th, 1886.
or, 128 Jarvis Street, Toronto,
April 17th, 1886.

3. The Address.—This consists of the name (and sometimes the business and place of abode) of the person written to. There should always be a narrow margin on the left side of the page, and the address should be written on the next line or the next but one below the heading, beginning at this marginal line. If it contains the address and business of the person, these should be written on the next two lines below, a little to the right, so that the first words of the lines will be in a line sloping to the right. For illustration see next paragraph.

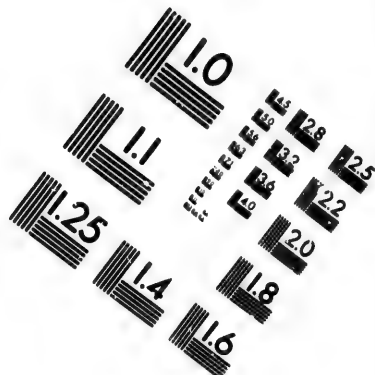
4. The Salutation.—This is the formal or ceremonial words of respect used towards the person. It is written on the next line below the address, beginning at the margin or a little to the right of it: thus,

A. B. Brilliant, Esq.,
Manager Gas Co.,
Luxborough.

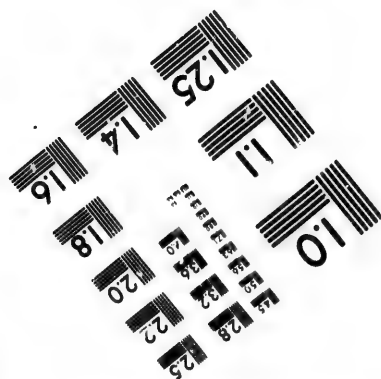
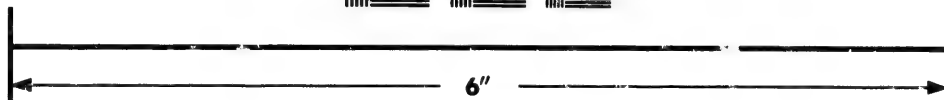
Dear Sir,
Your favor etc.

The form of the salutation will depend on the position of the person addressed, or on the degree of intimacy between the parties. *Sir* is formal, and is mostly confined to official letters. *Dear Sir* is the more





A resolution test chart featuring several groups of horizontal and vertical lines of varying thicknesses. Each group is accompanied by a numerical value indicating the resolution. The values include 1.0, 1.1, 1.25, 1.4, 1.6, 1.8, 2.0, 2.2, 2.5, 2.8, 3.0, 3.2, 3.6, 4.0, 4.5, and 5.0. The chart is used to measure the resolving power of imaging systems.



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usual form. **Dear** denotes courtesy or friendship, when set before **Sir** or a name, and **My dear** denotes intimacy as well.

In familiar and official letters it is usual to place the address after the body of the letter on the left side of the page.

5. The Body.—This contains what the person writing wishes to say to the person addressed. It begins on the line below the salutation, as shown in the preceding paragraph. Matter that relates to different subjects should be put into different paragraphs. The first paragraph usually acknowledges a previous letter received, if any.

6. The Complimentary Close.—The complimentary close will, like the salutation, depend on the position or the relationship of the person. It often repeats the salutation. It is written on the line below the body of the letter on the right hand side, and if it occupies more than one line the second begins a little to the right of the first. (See Specimen Letter, par. 9.)

7. The Signature.—The signature follows the complimentary close. It should be written quite legibly, especially when the letter is written to a stranger.

Matter not relevant to the subject of the letter, and matter forgotten or omitted in the body of the letter, is to be added after the signature as a postscript. This begins with the capital letters P.S., and is signed by the initials only of the writer.

8. The Direction.—This contains the name of the party written to; his business or occupation (if any); the number and the street (if necessary to give them) on which he resides or does business; and the city, town, or post-office where the letter is to be delivered: thus,

STAMP. <i>A. B. Brilliant, Esq., Manager Gas Co., 24 Main Street, Luzaborough, Ont.</i>
--

REMARK.—When no mistake can possibly arise, because the place is small and the party written to is well known in it, the occupation and the street, i.e., lines 2 and 3, are omitted.

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The name, which should include titles of courtesy, is written about half-way down the envelope, leaving a margin on the left-hand side. The business or occupation is to be put on the next line. The number and the street are put on the next line. Then, on the next, the name of the city, town, or post-office, and the province. Each part of the direction should be written very plainly, so that the post-office officials may, without difficulty, know exactly what to do with the letter. Each line of the direction should begin a little to the right of the one above it, so that the whole may slope to the right.

9. Specimen Letter.—An application.—

The Dominion Printing Co., *Cobourg, Ont., Aug. 30th, 1886.*
Front Street,
Toronto.

Gentlemen,

I have seen your advertisement in the Toronto daily papers for a youth to learn the printing business, and I beg to offer myself for the place.

I am fourteen years of age, am strong and active, in excellent health, and am not afraid to work. I attended the Public School of this town for about four years: two years ago I passed the Entrance Examination, and have since been attending the Collegiate Institute. These facts will give you an idea of my scholarship, and, as evidence of my good character, I enclose testimonials from the Principal of the Institute and my former teacher.

If you would like a personal interview, I shall be glad to present myself at your office on any day and at any hour you may name.

I am, Gentlemen,

Yours very respectfully,

A. B. Workhard.

P.S.—My father has just told me that business will call him to Toronto the day after to-morrow, and he has promised to call and see you.

A. B. W.

10. Letters of Introduction.—A letter given by one person to another for the purpose of introducing the latter to some other person, is called a LETTER OF INTRODUCTION. It may run as follows:—

Brantford, Ont., April 30th, 1885.

My dear Friend,

This will introduce to you Mr. Alpheus Todd, an old and dear acquaintance of mine. He is visiting your city for the first time, and any attention it may be in your power to show him during his stay will be highly esteemed by him, and regarded as a personal favor by

Yours very sincerely,

Oliver Wendell Holmes, M.D.,
Boston, Mass.

Geo. Peabody.

A letter of introduction is generally left unsealed, and has the name of the person to be introduced written on the left hand lower corner of the envelope, preceded by the words **Introducing Mr. —**.

A letter that is sent by a friend has **Favor of Mr. —** in the left hand lower corner of the envelope.

11. Notes of Invitation.—Notes of invitation are generally written in the third person, and have none of the formal parts of a letter. They are generally short, containing the name of the persons inviting, and of the person invited, and the time of meeting. The place and date of writing the note are placed below on the left hand side: thus,

Mr. and Mrs. — request the pleasure of Mr. —'s company on Monday evening, May 11th, at 8 p.m.

Rosebank,

Wednesday, May 6th.

The answer should be in similar form. Of course, an invitation may be given in the ordinary letter form; the answer should then be in that form also.

12. Post Cards.—Most of the directions given above for letter-writing apply also to post cards; but, since these partake somewhat of the nature of despatches, less attention and space are given to the parts that are merely formal, such as the salutation and the complimentary close.

FINIS.

INDEX.

	PAGES		PAGES
Abbreviation	14, 77	Comma	29, 46, 181
Adjectives	23	Conditional Verb-phrase ..	135
" Predicate ...	26, 155, 163	Conjugations	117
" Attributive ...	27, 163	" New ..	118, 120, 122, 127
" Appositive	164	" Old ..	118, 120, 123, 128
" Classes of	68	" Active	142
" Clauses	80	" Passive	143, 144
" Comparison of ..	100	" Scheme of ...	139, 144
Adverbs	30, 147, 167	Conjunctions	42, 83, 147
" Classes of	71	Conjunctive Pronouns	65
" Clauses	79	Consonants	177
Adverbial Objective	168	Copula	26, 27
" Pred. Adjective ..	157	Dash	183
Agreement	105, 152	Defective Verbs	129
Alphabet	176	Degrees of Comparison ...	100, 147
Analysis	9, 11, 18, 22, 25, 28, 32, 34, 39, 59, 78, 82	Different Values of Words ..	47
Appositive	163	Different Values of Preposi- tion Phrases	49
" Adjective	164	Different Kinds of Sentences	50
Appendix	176	Diphthongs	177
Apostrophe	40, 93, 184	Emphatic Verb-phrases ..	134
Articles	70	Errors for Correction	15, 19, 22, 29, 35, 40, 46, 52, 62, 73, 96, 99, 111, 117, 122, 137, 149, 154, 157, 165, 167, 169, 180, 184
Auxiliary Verbs	124	Exclamation Mark	46, 182
Capitals	14, 29, 46, 54, 179	Explanations	15, 40
Caret	183	Gender	56, 98
Case	90, 92, 94, 166	" Nouns	56
Cautions	6, 12, 16, 19, 23, 29, 35, 37, 41, 54, 59, 71, 116, 117, 137, 148, 149, 176	" of Pronouns	97
Clauses	41, 44, 80	Government	105, 152
Colon	181	Grammar	13
Composition	6, 8, 9, 13, 14, 15, 22, 25, 29, 32, 35, 38, 39, 44, 51, 52, 60, 61, 66, 67, 71, 72, 74, 75, 81, 84, 96, 99, 104, 107, 116, 121, 127, 148, 149, 150	Hyphen	16, 59, 183
Compound Sentence	75, 174	Imperative Verb-phrases ..	135
Complex	79, 174	Infinitives	111
Complement	174		

	PAGES		PAGES
Inflection	85, 87, 90	Predicate Complete	17
Interjections	45, 74	" Incomplete	155
Interrogation Mark	15, 182	" Adjectives	26, 156, 157
Irregularities of Conjugation	122	" Nouns	27, 156
It	153	Prepositions	36, 73, 147
Letters	176	Progressive Verb-phrases	133, 138
Letter-Writing	185	Pronouns	20, 21
Marks Used in Writing ..	15, 183	" Classes of	62
Modifiers	23, 29, 30, 36	Punctuation	6, 14, 29,
Mood	108, 134	40, 41, 51, 52, 54, 99, 180, 184	
Nouns	11	Quotation Marks	183
" Classes of	53	Scheme of Conjugation ...	139
" Clauses	80	Semicolon	181
" Predicate	27, 155	Sentences	5, 152
" Used Absolutely ..	170	" Parts of	8
Notes to Teacher	16, 37, 43, 45,	" Subject of ...	9, 151, 153
59, 65, 74, 98, 107, 110, 139, 176		" Predicate of ...	9, 153
Number	85	" Simple	41, 151
" of Verbs	106	" Compound	75, 174
Numerals	68	" Complex	79, 174
Object	33, 158	" Assertive	50
" Direct	158	" Interrogative ..	50
" Indirect	159	" Imperative	51
Objective Predicate, Adjec-		Stem or Root-infinitive...	113
tive or Noun	161	Subject	10, 174
Obligative Verb-phrases ..	134	Summary of Syntax	173
Parts of Speech	19, 45	Syllables	178
Participles	113, 116, 121	Syntax	151
Parenthesis	15, 183	Tense	107, 130, 138
Parsing	13, 18, 22, 28, 32, 40, 45,	Values of Words	47
51, 59, 95, 98, 103, 110, 146, 148		Verbs	16, 18
Passive Verb-phrases	142	" Classes of	60
Period	6, 14, 180	" Tenses of	107, 130
Person	97, 104	" Mood of	108
Phrases	36, 38,	" Transitive	60, 158
96, 130, 133, 134, 135, 171		" Intransitive	61, 159
Plural	86, 87, 89	Verb-phrases	130, 142
Potential Verb-phrases....	134	Verbs of Incomplete Predi-	
Post Cards	138	cation	156
Predicate	8, 153	Vowels	177
" Bare	17	Words	176

PAGES

17
 155
 56, 157
 27, 156
 73, 147
 33, 138
 20, 21
 62
 14, 29,
 80, 184

 183

 139
 181
 5, 152
 8
 1, 153
 9, 153
 1, 151
 5, 174
 9, 174
 50
 50
 51
 113
 174
 173
 178
 151

 138

 47
 6, 18
 60
 130
 108
 158
 159
 142

 156
 177

 176